The Nation.

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The Week.

President Roosevelt is muzzled about the tariff—the one subject which he never mentions in his otherwise all-embracing speeches—but his Secretary of Commerce blurts out the truth. Mr. Straus, addressing the National Association of Cotton Manufacturers at Washington last Friday, openly preached the gospel of lower tariffs and reciprocal foreign trade. He declared that there was no hope in "high tariff walls," since they only hampered the manufacturer and provoked retaliation. The Secretary told the cotton men that they were suffering from a too high tariff, and then praised President McKinley for having so clearly seen in 1901 that we stand in need of revised duties. He discreetly left it to his hearers to say who was responsible, since 1901, for nothing having been done. When Mr. Straus entered the Cabinet there was much Republican complacence over his being a business man. Now that he evidently "means business" about the tariff, it will be interesting to see what is said.

As we had with Chili in 1891 a "good enough war" to frighten Congress into voting more battleships, so our current war with Japan is plainly to be used to enlarge the naval programme. The official Administration policy has been simply to hold the fleet at its present level of efficiency, asking for not more than one new battleship a year. But now it is announced at Washington that three, possibly four, will be demanded at the next session of Congress. And the busy advocates of the increase are saying that they hope to get it with little difficulty, by means of a diligent and skilful use of the war scare. Senator Hale, with his great power on the Naval Committee, has been their stumbling-block, but now he is expected to give in easily, since the sailing of the fleet to the Pacific will "leave the Maine coast unprotected." It is even hinted that "this circumstance was not overlooked by the President"! If our naval strategists were only as crafty in using battleships as they are in planning to get them built, we should be the terror of the seas.

Rumors that Secretaries Wilson and Metcalf and Attorney-General Bonaparte are to retire from the Cabinet are discredited at Washington. This will help James Wilson to surpass Albert Gallatin's twelve years and nine months of continuous Cabinet service. There is still another point to be mentioned. The rumored resignations would have deprived Mr. Roosevelt of the last member of the Cabinet to remain continuously in the same office that he held when Mr. Roosevelt became President. Mr. Root, of course, returned to private life before he was recalled to Washington as Secretary of State. Two Secretaries of State, two of War, and two of the Interior have sat at Roosevelt's Cabinet table; three Attorneys-General, three Secretaries of the Treasury, and three of Commerce and Labor, but there have been five Postmasters-General and five Secretaries of the Navy. There have been seventeen changes in nine departments. Grant's record of eighteen changes in seven departments still stands. But, then, Mr. Roosevelt has eighteen months of his term still to serve.

John Sharp Williams is to be a candidate, and presumably a successful candidate, once more for the Democratic leadership in the House of Representatives. He is not content, like his predecessor, Mr. Richardson, to return to the ranks, even for a single term, after having been commander. Mr. Williams may not have realized all the dazzling predictions that were made for him at the time of his accession, when the country learned of his adroitness as a parliamentarian and his grasp of issues. No one will dispute, however, his achievement in making the House minority respectable and respected—as it was not in the days of either Bailey or Richardson. The talk of a contest in the Democratic caucus will doubtless die down this year, as it did two years ago, before the speakership ballot is actually taken. Mr. Williams, who does not take his seat in the Senate till 1911, proposes to take a two years' vacation from public life after his present term expires. This gives the other aspirants their chance soon enough. It also gives the new Senator an opportunity to prepare for the transition. Mr. Williams's qualities are those characteristic of the House leaders. Many of his admirers will watch with interest to see if he can make as good a record in the upper chamber.

Lemuel E. Quigg's checks from the Metropolitan Street Railway, and what he did with them, make an interesting but not very surprising story. It was well known, in a general way, that such things had been done; all that had been lacking was documentary proof and the confessions of the active agent. Those have now been supplied. They furnish a sardonic comment upon the machinery behind the scenes, by which the puppets on the public stage are so often moved. We see a "labor uprising" brought about by the simple expedient of paying a labor leader $500. "Impressive manifestations of public opinion" now appear to have been artfully engineered on a cash basis. The gentlemen whom the sagacious Quigg hired were what is known as "the right men." There are always certain lawyers to whom it is best to entrust important causes affected by a political interest. They alone have the knack of making "arguments" that really count. When they "appear," we know that results will also appear. Public opinion may have seemed very slow in crystallizing before, but let several of the "right men" be retained, and it will not be long till you see the people rising in their wrath. This, too, is an old story. To get things done for you at one of the departments at Washington, you have to go to the "right" legal firm to present your case. Some one having the ear of a great man, it is better to approach than it is to seek out the great man himself. It was influential hangers-on of Lord Bacon, not the Chancellor himself, who took the bribes to secure favorable decisions. We are not sure that these go-betweens were not known, in their day, as "eminent counsel." The cynicism of Mr. Quigg may prove to have added a word to our political vocabulary. He described his costly efforts as designed to "accelerate" public opinion. This is an advance over the definition which the press agent of the Panama Canal gave of his functions—namely, to keep public opinion "normal." But that was far too slow for the Metropolitan. To suit it, public opinion had to hit up the pace, and, of course, it is money which makes that mare go. Just at present, however, all talk of "accelerating" speed in connection with the Metropolitan's affairs will inevitably suggest, by association of ideas, the Rake's Progress, or the rushing of the Gadarene swine down a steep place into the sea.

If Massachusetts Democrats would only fight their opponents with a tithe of the enthusiasm with which they fight each other, they might hope to carry the State occasionally. It is needless to say that their bitter factional quarrels, if unhealed, will make a present of Massachusetts to the Republicans—this, too, in a year when the Democratic outlook was peculiarly flattering. Both Bartlett and Whitney are now posing as the Democratic nominee for Governor. Into the rights of the unseemly wrangle at the State Convention in Springfield we cannot pretend at this distance to enter. The action taken by the Bartlett delegates may have been "regular," under

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the rules of desperate party gamesters; it may yet be held lawful, but it was certainly high-handed and outrageous. When over 200 of the regularly accredited delegates to a party convention make affidavit that they were forcibly kept from entering the hall, to call the proceedings fair would be farcical. It is now asserted that twenty-five of the Bartlett delegates disclaim and repudiate his nomination, while John R. Thayer, named with him for Lieutenant-Governor, indignantly refuses to go upon the ticket, which he thinks fraudulent. Moreover, C. Z. E. Charest, nominated for Attorney-General on both tickets, has withdrawn from Bartlett's. It certain seems to be a situation where a reasonable compromise is called for. Passion has run high. Against both Gen. Bartlett and Mr. Whitney resentful feeling has been stirred. Why cannot an adjustment now be sought whereby both would withdraw in favor of another candidate? If ex-Gov. Douglas could be persuaded to stand, there would be hope of his election. And the issue of tariff reform could be made as vital and successful in his hands as in those of Mr. Whitney himself.

The "retirements" of George B. Cox from Ohio politics have been about as numerous as the "last appearances" of certain favorites of the opera. It was supposed that he would stay retired after Secretary Taft had "done sent him in his resignation," like the negro preacher's dissatisfied congregation. Judges Ferris and Hosea, however, of the Superior Court of Cincinnati have made the fatal mistake of taking his retirement seriously, going even so far as to appoint a trustee of the Cincinnati Southern Railroad without first slipping round to his place of seclusion to ask permission. As a result, both have learned that they are not to be candidates for renomination. Both have been efficient and popular judges, but what does that amount to if the man by whose gracious permission they donned the ermine at the start is not to have the privilege of saying who are to manage so fine a bit of public property as the Cincinnati Southern? Here is a good test of Secretary Taft's mettle as a reformer. Will he again hit the foul head of the despicable boss who has so soon risen from the former blow and dares openly to display his control of the Cincinnati courts? Cox evidently does not believe that the Secretary, as a candidate for the Presidency, will have the courage to speak the word which would again hurl him to the ground. We shall wait with interest to learn if this is one of the things which can best be considered after the Presidential election.

Profound modifications in the common law are to be looked for when Anson on Contracts, or Pollock on Contracts, or Langdell on Contracts shall have been completely superseded by the Walking Delegate on Contracts. The labor-union view of that elementary relation of economic life is that it must be unilateral, incapable of enforcement when repudiated by the union. Under such circumstances, we doubt whether even the use of the injunction, resorted to by the president of the Typothetæ against the threatened pressmen and feeders' strike on the basis of an agreement signed last January, can do much good. When the members of a union are simply determined to pursue what they regard as their best interests for the passing moment, in defiance of the rules of fair play or rational consistency, it is impossible to get money satisfaction; and it is quite as impossible to enforce specific performance when the men are determined not to work. It is astonishing that labor unions should persist in this manner in alienating public sympathy, in spite of repeated proof that without public support their cause is usually a hopeless one. Such wanton disregard of assumed obligations might be comprehensible in extreme labor circles, where the theory of "class war" is a main article of faith, and all tactics are considered fair. But our "conservative" unionists who seek to bind down the employer with contracts evidently believe that an armistice is an agreement which compels the enemy to sit still while you fire.

It is an eternal paradox of our world of letters that the books which enjoy the largest sale are barely recognized as existing by the guardians of literary tradition. Mrs. Mary Jane Holmes, who died on Sunday at Brockport, N. Y., wrote thirty-nine novels with aggregate sales, it is said, of more than two million copies, and yet she had not even a paragraph devoted to her life and works in the histories of American literature. Year in and year out her books have held their own. "Tempest and Sunshine," Mrs. Holmes's first book, which appeared in 1854, a year after "Bleak House," and the same year as "The Newcomes," could, doubtless, make a respectable showing in point of American sales with these "standards." What is the quality which has enabled it to survive so many other books incomparably more worthy if the tests applied by the critic mean anything? Barrie observes of the first successful book of his hero, Thomas Sandys, that it should have been entitled "Passages cut out of a story because they prevented it from marching." The twentieth-century reader of Mrs. Holmes is tempted to describe her books as made up of phrases rejected by other novelists because they were crude and hackneyed. Her characters "little dream" of the events that are about to befall them, "an unseen hand seals their lips" at critical moments, every hero "lights his Havana," every heroine "reclines on soft cushions," sounds "grate harshly." Those who sneer at the hackneyed phrase too often forget that the phrase became hackneyed principally because it was so good that writers overworked it. Given a public which has not read other books, and all those rag-bag phrases and situations still make their primitive appeal. We smile at Dora Deane's vow, "I would rather die than marry a man I did not love because of his gold." Yet there is certainly nothing ridiculous in the sentiment; it is one of the noblest known to womankind. Erase all remembrance of the fact that it has been standard coin in the melodrama of two hundred years, and who would not thrill at it? Indeed, Mrs. Holmes's books make their strongest appeal because their moral tone is as unimpeachable as that of the popular drama. It is a common fallacy that any writer of facility could turn out books like these. In rare instances, doubtless, the trick has been done by men and women who have sneered at the finished product. But the simplicity and sincerity of an author like Mrs. Holmes can hardly be imitated. That, after all, is what makes her books live.

Austria's railways are in danger of a strike carried on in accordance with the principles of "passive resistance." This is the same method employed recently with such great success on the Italian railways. It consists in the observance by the employees of every minute regulation affecting themselves and the public, with resulting congestion of traffic and serious delays. Totally aside from the merits of the question at issue, the strike by "passive resistance" deserves attention as part of a movement, in which we in this country are particularly interested, directed against regulations which are not intended to regulate, or books of instruction to employees which are handed out by their superiors with a wink. When a railway disaster results from the error of an overworked employee, the manager points to the rules, which allow only so many hours' continuous duty. That employees refusing to work beyond the stated hours have been dismissed is, of course, purely accidental. Thus Jersey City passes an ordinance compelling the traction companies to give a seat for every five-cent fare, not with the hope of abolishing strap-hanging, but of merely mitigating the intolerable conditions. What wonder if the layman's conception of law in general is of something in the nature of a wholesaler's price-list, from which it is always possible to get 60, 25, and 20 off?

Above all motives of pure sportsman-

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ship, the Swedish challengers for the America's Cup are actuated by the desire to turn the proposed contest to national profit. This is frankly, almost naïvely, avowed:

> Our chief motive in making an attempt to capture the cup is, if we are successful, to get American yachtsmen to come to Sweden and try to win it back, so as to create intimate relations between the two countries.

International sport appears destined to become the favorite method for promoting international flirtations—especially among Columbia's suitors. The most prominent aspirant in this direction found this out some time ago. Gifts of books to Harvard and of statues of Frederick the Great and the exchange of professors have been supplemented by Sonderklasse races for a Kaiser's cup in this country, and by annual German-American love feasts at Kiel. What is especially striking in the statement we have quoted is the implicit recognition of the fact that it is better to meet in contest on the chance of becoming good friends than not to meet at all. That Sweden should be desirous of entering into closer relations with this country is illustrative of the degree to which the break-up of the union with Norway, in 1905, has served as a stimulus to Swedish national energy and patriotism. It is simply another case of the salutary effect of tribulation that was exemplified in Spain after the war with this country, in Great Britain after the mischances of the Boer war, and in Russia after her defeat by Japan. Sweden as a partner in an incompatible union held the world's attention less, on the whole, than she does now. She has set her face towards progress by entering on the real democratization of her institutions, including the introduction of universal manhood suffrage, and has attempted to find compensation for the economic losses involved in the separation from Norway by contracting closer relations abroad.

Premier Clemenceau's plea for the maintenance of the patriotic ideal in opposition to the propaganda of the anti-militarists shows, of course, that whatever be his personal inclinations, the head of a state is bound to reckon with facts. But, like other noted rulers and chief magistrates, the French Premier has found it necessary to base his defence of militarism on the ground of its utility to a high spiritual cause. The Kaiser stands for arms and the Fatherland's mission to civilization; the President believes in arms for righteousness; M. Clemenceau, true to the national bias, conjoins arms with idealism. Greece, he argued, like modern France, stood for the realization of lofty ideals, but because of her lack of patriotism "she succumbed, and with her the marvellous efflorescence of intelligence which could only endure by the protection of arms." For this reason he would protest against the "ferocious idealism" which in carrying such theories as international peace to the extreme works only for its own destruction. Yet M. Hervé and the other anti-militarists might argue that the fall of Greece did not prevent, if it actually did not further, the dissemination of that Hellenic culture of which M. Clemenceau claims for France the proud inheritance. What is the use, they might argue, of developing a "high intelligence" and keeping it locked up at home within the squares of a standing army? In any case, when men plead for justice and war, or righteousness and war, or culture and war, the natural tendency is for the variable factors in the different combinations to disappear and the one thing that persists is the common, positive element—war.

The disruption of the French Parliamentary *bloc* seems on the eve of becoming an accomplished fact. Opposition orators have for some time been applying to the historic coalition the sad phrase from Sully-Prudhomme's "Broken Vase," *N'y touchez pas, c'est brisé*, but it was the recent Socialist congress at Nancy, with its adoption of a frankly anti-militarist programme, that precipitated the crisis. The Radicals can no longer march with the Socialists, whose economic theories they might attempt to palliate or in their hearts deny; but they could not show even tolerance for their anti-patriotic views without bringing about their own destruction, and possibly the fall of the republic. Organized by Waldeck-Rousseau in 1899 in the heat of the Dreyfus agitation, the *bloc* has brought about during its existence of eight years far-reaching changes in the internal and external position of France. The great trend has been towards Radicalism, and the country in repeated elections has never faltered in its support of the Radical programme. The readjustment of political groups in the Chamber that must follow is too complicated and uncertain a topic for brief comment. It may only be pointed out that the *bloc*, up to the present, has counted a membership of nearly 400 in the Chamber, consisting of Radicals, Socialist-Radicals, and Socialists, as against about 180 anti-republicans of various kinds and republican conservatives. The transference of some 55 Socialist votes to the Opposition should still leave the Government a comfortable majority, but not a safe one, as majorities come and go in France.

If repeated disenchantment had not taught the world to regard with suspicion the Czar bearing gifts, there might be cause for some measure of hope in the recent reports from Russia. From time to time we learn that the process of endowing the peasants with land, and incidentally breaking up the communal village system, is progressing rapidly with the aid of the rural banks, established as part of Premier Stolypin's policy. The other day it was reported that Gen. Kaulbars, governor-general of Odessa, and a notorious Jew-baiter, who has been proved responsible for the excesses of the Black Hundred, has been dismissed from his post. After that came the news that the Minister of Education had decided to remove "the restrictions hitherto in operation against admitting more than a small percentage of Jewish students to the higher schools of learning." Before the accession of Nicholas II. the ratio of Jewish to Christian students in the universities and gymnasia had been fixed at a maximum of 4 per cent. That full equality should at once be granted seems incredible. During the brief dawn of Russian freedom in the summer and fall of 1905, this was actually done. But the rush of Jewish students to the universities and high schools was so great as to alarm the authorities, and they seized upon the political tumults of the following months as an excuse for rescinding the action. That the present reform, if true, will be lasting we have not the slightest guarantee. Czarism at its best may be palliative; it cannot cure radically.

Menander muck-raked is no unjust description of the [illegible] to which that great star of Athens' New Comedy must now become subjected as a result of the discovery of considerable fragments of his plays. The plays of Menander, like the poems of Sappho and Alcæus and Agatho's "Flower," are among the products of the Greek genius whose loss classical scholars have particularly deplored. That loss has not prevented these scholars from assigning to Menander and to Sappho a place in the leading rank of Greek writers, on the authority of old report and traditions. Now it would appear that the discovered papyri containing fragments of Menander reflect little glory on a man who has been placed next to Aristophanes. His plots are perfunctory, and his characters lack animation—serious charges against a dramatist. We are, of course, still at liberty to believe in his incomparable knowledge of contemporary life, his wit, his faultless style—because the material now turned up is scarcely sufficient to condradict what the old historians of literature have said on the subject. On the whole, perhaps, Sappho's reputation has suffered no harm from the destructive criticism of the early Christians and the Goths.

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ON "HURTING BUSINESS."

The President was splendid in his speech at Keokuk in scorning the appeal to stop his anti-corporation movement, on the ground that "it may hurt business." As for him, if there was a conflict between righteousness and business, "then the latter must go to the wall." So long as he is President, there will be no change in the policy of "enforcing the law against certain wrongdoers of great wealth." Stocks may fall, bank clearings drop by millions, industry be chilled, but none of these things will move a righteous President bent on doing justice.

It must be said of this, however, that it is magnificent, but it is not Republicanism. For at least twenty years the Republican party has lived and moved and had its being in the one great rule of doing nothing to hurt business. It has boasted of nothing so much as of the prosperity it has secured, the new wealth it has created. Year after year it has gone to the voters with both hands full of bribes—the bribes of promises to make everybody rich. And whenever it has had a chance, as in 1896, to assert that another party in power had been bad for business, it has exalted material prosperity as the be-all and end-all of national existence, and pledged itself to remove everything that could interfere with it. It has bound itself to see to it that fires were lighted in the black mills, and that every laborer should have a chicken in the pot. Thus it is a time-honored Republican principle that was invoked when eminent members of the party went to the President and urged him to call a halt, since his course was injuring business. It was a perfectly legitimate plea, from their point of view, and the party's; and they were justified in being indignant at Mr. Roosevelt, as a good Republican, for denying its rightfulness. Judged by Republican history and avowed standards, he had thereby denied the faith and become worse than an infidel.

The further question needs to be asked: Has President Roosevelt, in fact, always been so loftily contemptuous towards the demand that he do nothing to hurt business? Five years ago he began to make speeches about tariff-revision. It was then a toss-up whether he should come out as a great tariff-reformer or a corporation-baiter. What led to his decision to throw over the reform of the tariff? Who was it that went to him in 1904, after he had been reëlected, and after he had written in the first draft of his message to Congress, "I shall address you later on the tariff," and induced him to maintain the clam-like silence on that subject which he has ever since observed? What argument did these people use? Everybody knows. It was precisely the argument, the appeal, which he now repels with such fine anger. He was told that if he meddled with the iniquities of the tariff, business would be disturbed, the party would lose elections, his own popularity would be cut into; and the proud soul of the President, who can brook no sordid reasoning, allowed the standpatters to have their way without a murmur. Indeed, he and his successor-designate, Secretary Taft, have admitted to the full the argument that business must in no way be hurt by tariff revision. For that reason they have agreed that nothing must be done to right that gross injustice until after the next Presidential election—which means never, so far as their party is concerned. They concede the grievous wrong. They acknowledge that it ought to be remedied immediately; but to attempt to do so would "stir things up," and therefore they cannot think of it. But we say that it is not only inconsistent, it is absolutely indecent, for men who have lain down under that sort of base remonstrance all these years, suddenly to assume that they are determined to do right even if business goes to smash. Of a man capable of living in dread of the tariff beneficiaries, and then posing as one who never allows a business consideration to stand in the way of what he believes to be wise and just, we can almost say: "Upon his brow shame is ashamed to sit."

In stating the antithesis between righteousness and business energetically as he does, the President betrays again his fondness for general moral terms. He will do anything to help business, or to aid labor, "except what is wrong." But he leaves, and will leave, this "wrong" wholly undefined. In the end, it comes down with him to a personal conviction, in each individual case. "Righteousness" is the particular course he elects to follow. It is righteous to prosecute the Standard Oil for rebating; it was also righteous to extol Paul Morton for rebating. To Mr. Roosevelt, there is not the slightest inconsistency in this. His desires and decisions become at once to him the embodiment of the moral law—great principles to be fought for to the death. So much the keener is our regret that he did not happen to identify tariff reform with "righteousness," so that, in its behalf, he might have despised the servile argument that to do justice would hurt business!

THE NEW STATES' RIGHTS ISSUE.

It was nearly twenty years ago that Mr. Bryce wrote in "The American Commonwealth" that, while a Democrat always admitted frankly that his cherished doctrine of States' rights had no bearing "on any presently debated issue," he still insisted that, "should any issue involving the rights of the States arise, his party will be, as always, the guardian of American freedom." The point is worth recalling, now that this historic tenet of the Democratic party is being put forward as a possible major issue next year. There was not a word about States' rights in either of the party platforms of 1904. Can it be that in less than three years the matter has unexpectedly arisen as a factor in party alignment?

That Democrats of all schools do take an interest in this issue is indisputable. While Mr. Bryan in Nebraska was drafting a platform demanding that "Federal remedies shall be added to and not substituted for State remedies," Judge Parker at Jamestown was asking "by what process of reasoning the Executive has reached the conclusion that for the various departments of the Federal government to seize power not granted by the States and the people is 'to protect and defend the Constitution.'" Even Republicans show some concern over the subject. There were more Republicans than Democrats among the State attorneys-general who, in convention last week, asked Congress to prevent the interference of the inferior Federal courts with the progress of test cases through the State courts. Congressman McCall, who recently drew attention to the fivefold increase since 1897 in the sum spent annually for various branches of Federal inspection, is likewise a Republican, though of an "undesirable" sort.

To recapitulate the acts and measures which have given present meaning to the shibboleths of a past generation is unnecessary. The Federal authorities have been doing and talking of doing a great many things which, whether done or neglected in practice, had always been classed among the duties allotted to the States. The reaction was unexpected. Instead of consenting to have their work done for them, the States began to busy themselves. Some State or other now asserts that it has shown the Federal government the way in nearly every one of these recent activities. All the States are making new assertions of purpose and efficiency. From a parcel of anæmic, undecided, futile damsels, the States have come to be regarded as a sisterhood of Valkyries, compared with whom the central government is a kindly grandmother, to whose lap menaced corporations gladly run to be cuddled.

The extension of the field of Federal activity has generally proceeded on the theory that a practical people did not care much about abstract notions of governmental functions when the question was whether important work should be done or neglected. This view was supported by many facts. Some States even, as in the matter of interstate liquor shipments, insisted that their own laws were being nullified unless the Federal government lent a helping hand in enforcement. But the past months have

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shown that, even as a practical question purely, there are two sides to this issue of State functions. The States differ in their ideas to a greater extent, we imagine, than most of us supposed. With the "Jim Crow car" movement we have little enough sympathy, yet it must be reckoned with as a powerful force against a thoroughly centralized railway policy, still more against government ownership.

Nor is it necessary to take extreme cases like Delaware's whipping post, South Dakota's divorce courts, and New Jersey's corporation offices for evidence that the States have minds of their own, even though, like the minds of individuals, not always entitled to admiration. There is hardly a department of public activity in which there is not some movement to secure uniformity of legislation. Influential men attend conventions devoted to these objects. A complete outfit of "model laws" is at the disposal of every State legislature free of charge. Justice, neighborliness, convenience, and efficiency are all to be promoted by uniform laws. Such laws do make considerable progress in certain departments, yet at some point they come to grief on local crotchets or convictions. The passage of an imaginary line can change the status of a man or thing in ways that are magical. Yet not all of the local differences that excite so much mirth are mere products of chance or indifference. Like so many human beings, the States go on liking their own ways best. The other day, for example, a Montana newspaper argued that Montana had worked out for herself a system of cattle-control based on the registration of brands, and that the government sought to wipe this out entirely. The system may not have been better, but the claim is made that it suited local conditions. As Federal activity spreads still further it is bound to interfere in the same way with other solutions of local problems.

The States' rights sentiment of to-day has little in common with its ante-bellum namesake. That it can take first, or even second place, as a campaign issue next year, is much to be doubted. But the States are sensitive, and interference with their local affairs is irritating. And from the Democratic point of view the issue has a peculiar piquancy from the fact that most of the State officials who have resented the friction are themselves Republicans.

REGULATING THE AUTOMOBILE.

For some weeks past the London *Times* has been printing letters in regard to the evils of automobiling which might readily have been written in this country. There is the same disposition to hold the "road hog" and the reckless or drunken chauffeur responsible for the most flagrant outrages, and there is also general agreement that thus far there has been no satisfactory regulation of automobiling. The dust and the destruction of the roads are in the foreground of the complaints, but there is also much testimony in regard to fast driving, the terrorizing of the timid who used to go out in pony-carts or family carriages, and the overwhelming of the pedestrian with grime and dirt. Altogether, as the *Spectator* puts it, the *Times* letters are proof of the well-reasoned dissatisfaction over the scant progress made in dealing with the problem. And repeatedly there is a note of anger and exasperation, which shows that some people's nerves have been tried to the point where endurance seems no longer possible.

Something of this same feeling is reported from Long Island, where the motor-plague in this neighborhood is at its worst. We hear of roads made impossible for anything besides automobiles, of homes rendered uninhabitable because of dust and noise, and of roads destroyed with such rapidity as to put undue burdens upon the local taxpayers. *Intolerable* is the word generally used to describe conditions there. If one goes north into the rural districts, say, beyond Albany, there is scarcely less dissatisfaction. The farmers' wives have given up their jaunts to town or village for fear of the touring-car that swings suddenly around corners without a note of warning, and the farmers complain of considerable property damage. The tourist who flits at thirty miles an hour through a village that he never expects to see again is generally indifferent to the harm he may do in passing.

Signs that "in this village the speed-laws are strictly enforced" are met on every hand. Often they call for the ridiculously low speed of eight miles an hour, and frequently the warning is merely an empty threat. Local regulation may be called a dead failure, because it is only spasmodically enforced, and because it is frequently used to make money for villages that wish to pile up the fines, if only to meet the extra bills for constables. The latter frequently err in their readiness to provide their own salaries. In one case we know of, the justice of the peace who imposed a fine subsequently admitted its injustice and asked the town board to remit it. But the board wanted the money, and kept it. Frequently, special efforts are made to arrest people when there is a particular attraction, like a football game. Then towns that molest no one on the other 364 days of the year reap a harvest, and the mulcted motorist cannot be blamed for driving away with a feeling of injury and disgust. Intermittent enforcement in city or country avails little.

What, then, are to be the remedies? The police powers of the great countries are surely not to remain impotent in the face of this new and valuable mode of locomotion; but, so far, it must be admitted there are singularly few constructive suggestions offered anywhere. Many of the London *Times's* correspondents have come to the conclusion that special motor roads must be constructed, whatever the cost. There is a general agreement that, if the automobile is to use the general highways, they must be completely rebuilt with much heavier foundations, and that oil or some special preparation must be used to prevent the sucking-up of the surfacing. Few automobilists would object, we think, to an annual State tax—which would be trifling compared to the cost of a single tire—imposed for the purpose of repairing the highways, because the automobilists would themselves profit by the improved roads. Moreover, decent automobilists everywhere are anxious to have the drunken chauffeur or the deliberately reckless driver severely punished. The Automobile Club of America has proved this by its ready coöperation with the police of this city. This phase of the evil is likely to grow less as time passes.

But when all is said and done, the vital question of controlling the speed still remains, and on this point contributors to the discussion seem much at sea. The *Spectator* itself can give no practical advice; it merely reminds its readers that the difficulty of controlling the pace is due to the fact that in a run of, say, twenty miles or so, three or four different speeds may be allowable as perfectly safe, and may be desirable as causing the *minimum of discomfort to* all who use the road. The man who can suggest a means of regulating these varying speeds is certain of international fame. People are looking for him as eagerly in Germany and Italy as here in the United States or in England. And yet, as our friends from Long Island remind us, something must be done. In that place, at least, there should be a special public automobile highway to which the motors should be confined, precisely as in New England the trolley car is more and more being compelled to buy its own right of way through the fields. And if the Legislature might well discuss the building of an experimental highway north of this city, towns and counties ought to coöperate in establishing patrols, which shall control the roads, not one or two Sundays in the year, but all the time. Finally, exemplary punishments must more than ever be invoked where there is flagrant misbehavior.

SULLY-PRUDHOMME AND POETRY OF REFLECTION.

The recent death of Sully-Prudhomme has provoked the usual critical articles

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dealing with his career, with the usual *obiter dicta* regarding poetry. "The man," says our own Paris correspondent, "was France's greatest living poet"; and yet, after all, he was only a poet of reflection, a philosopher, with but few readers. In similar vein a writer in the London *Times* laments that Sully-Prudhomme's verses "lacked the music (as of a confused rushing of wings), the something surging mysteriously from the unconscious foundations of the soul, which vibrates in such poems as Shelley's 'Life of Life,' or some of Victor Hugo's momentous outbursts. Sully was never carried away, never transported by the fierce energy of the Muse." This manner of dismissing Sully-Prudhomme conveys the impression that poets of reflection rather than of passion are merely *dii minores*. Without arguing the case of Sully-Prudhomme himself—time will fix his place—we may remind our readers of the commonplace we are so prone to forget, that the vast bulk of our good verse is this very poetry of reflection of which we often speak so lightly.

The amount of poetry to which we can strictly apply Milton's definition, "simple, sensuous, and passionate," is relatively small. To that high level only the great poets attain, and they can remain in the rarefied atmosphere for but brief periods. The phrase "transported by the fierce energy of the Muse" calls up in our minds such passages as the apostrophe to Helen in Marlowe's "Faustus":

> Was this the face that launched a thousand ships,
> And burnt the topless towers of Ilium?
> Sweet Helen, make me immortal with a kiss.

It calls up a few of Shakespeare's sonnets, parts of his plays, and the best of Milton, Byron, Shelley, Keats, Coleridge, Tennyson, Browning, and Swinburne. This list is not, however, even for our English tongue, exhaustive; for the minor poets have now and then in a few lines or stanzas reached the summit. To cite examples from other literatures—say from Dante—would carry us too far afield. But we believe that were all the English poetry that is inspired by "the fierce energy of the Muse" gathered into a single anthology, it would make a book not half so large as Palgrave's "Golden Treasury." Indeed, these few jewels might easily be carried in the memory. The great body of our noble verse is, as we have said, reflective. The reflection is suffused with feeling, but not with strong passion. In the most popular of Latin poets, Horace, the prevalent mood is the reflective. And so too in Virgil, and above all in Lucretius, for whom Sully-Prudhomme had such admiration. A list of our English reflective poets would include, of those already mentioned, Shakespeare, Milton, Byron, Coleridge, Tennyson, and Browning; and we should be compelled to add Dryden, Pope, Gray, Cowper, Wordsworth, and Arnold. This is certainly a roll of august names. And the poetry itself—such pieces as Hamlet's Soliloquy, "Il Penseroso," "The Elegy in a Country Churchyard," Byron's Sonnet on Chillon, or the stanzas beginning, "Oh Rome! my country! city of my soul!" in "Childe Harold," Wordsworth's "Ode on Intimations of Immortality," Tennyson's "In Memoriam," and Arnold's "Dover Beach"—this poetry, though it may not be passion, is nevertheless in the grand style.

This larger volume of the poetry of meditation is, after all, inevitable from the constitution of the human mind. One cannot be always young or dominated by the fitful fevers of youth; the Mænads cannot reel in their dance forever. Even Swinburne wrote but one "Laus Veneris." The moments of transport, the spring floods, leave their high mark here and there; but, for the most part, summer, autumn, and winter, the current must subside into its worn channel—a current swift, it may be, and deep, but not raging. Out of the total production of Shelley and Keats, to be sure, an extraordinary proportion glows at white heat; but their souls were unusually fervent, even for poets; and both of them died early.

And the temper of the poet is the temper, too, of his readers. Were he all compact of fire he must make some concession to the coolness of common clay. An epic, even a single book of "Paradise Lost," pitched throughout in the key of Satan's tremendous speech, would be as intolerable as a symphony played *fortissimo* from beginning to close. Poetry must, like nature, speak a various language; and most of us are in the humor for reading high passion even less often than the poet is in the mood for writing it. If poetry is to solace and sustain us through life instead of merely quickening our blood in youth, it must make its longest and steadiest appeal to maturity and age. This was Lowell's feeling when he penned the motto for his last volume of verse, "Hearstsease and Rue":

> Along the wayside where we pass bloom few
> Gay plants of heartsease, more of saddening rue;
> So life is mingled; so should poems be
> That speak a conscious word to you and me.

And the word we long for when we have passed the grand climacteric, or when grave illness has brought home the incredible truth that we are mortal, is the word of sober reflection.

PHILIP FRENEAU.

It is a somewhat disturbing thought that the laborious publications most prized by scholars are just those which are likely to deprive an author of a real public. To take recent examples, there is Mrs. Paget Toynbee's superb Walpole in sixteen volumes, the Hazlitt in twelve, the Thoreau in twenty. How many of those who stand between the haphazard and the professional reader, thinking they must have the best, will, if they can afford it, buy the bulky Hazlitt, will scan its pages, packed with ephemeral salvage, place it on a shelf, and never again take it down? They would actually read the old Bohn edition, in its seven comfortable volumes. And this new Freneau* will, I fear, suffer the same fate, with the additional drawback that no popular selection of his works is available.

I.

It has been pointed out more than once that Freneau was a half-hearted pioneer in that "misty mid region of Weir," from which Poe, later on, was to bring back such astounding reports. An idle fancy might even look for a parallel in the circumstances of their frustrated ambitions, and might stop to compare the death of Poe with that of the older poet who wandered one night into a bog on his way home and was found the next day dying of exposure—intoxicated, it was rumored, although that ugly tradition is denied. Freneau, it need not be said, suffered from no such disabilities of the flesh as Poe, and the only point of the comparison would lie in the tragedy of their genius hemmed in on every side by prosaic surroundings. The later poet, at least, "amid wreck and sorrow," knew the solace of perfect expression, whereas the continual complaint of Freneau is that his faculty of song has been baffled by lack of sympathy. If there is anything real in the years that follow a man's death, Freneau's was the harder fate. Not a little of his best prose and verse was contributed to the *United States Magazine*, a monthly of Philadelphia, which ran through the year 1779 and then, like so many of the periodicals on which Poe lavished his powers, came to a full stop. A large class of Americans, said the editor in his valedictory, "inhabit the region of stupidity, and cannot bear to have the tranquillity of their repose disturbed by the villainous shock of a book. Reading is to them the worst of all torments, and I remember very well that at the commencement of the work it was their language, 'Art thou come to torment us before the time?' We will now say to them, 'Sleep on and take your rest.'" And Freneau himself in his verse never misses an opportunity of girding at the unimaginative age and people into which he was born.

"Before the time" might be taken as the text of Freneau's life. His family was of Huguenot descent, his grandfather having emigrated to New York in 1707. When Philip was born, in 1752, they were prosperous merchants in this city, with something of an estate in New Jersey. In his sixteenth year he went to Princeton, then under the able management of President Witherspoon. In the same class with him was James Madison, whose friendship he retained through life, while just below him were William Bradford and Aaron Burr. Poetry and politics were in the air, and Freneau got his first taste of satire in the rhyming contests between the Whig and Cliosophic societies, which were founded in his sophomore and junior years. Miniature epics, too, such as "The History of the Prophet Jonah," and solemn dialogues, such as "The Pyramids of Egypt," with the

*The Poems of Philip Freneau, Poet of the American Revolution. Edited for the Princeton Historical Association by Fred Lewis Pattee. 3 vols. Princeton: The University Library. 1902-7.

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Horatian *Debemur morti, nos nostraque* duly inscribed above, were not beyond his aspiration in those years, and were printed in the later collections of his works. They are really not so dull as might be supposed. We may smile at the old-fashioned manner of such verses as these, perhaps the earliest of his that have been preserved:

In ages past, when smit with warmth sublime,
Their bards foretold the dark events of time,
And piercing forward through the mystic shade,
Kings yet to come, and chiefs unborn survey'd,
Amittai's son perceiv'd, among the rest,
The mighty flame usurp his laboring breast. . . .

but in the work of how many sophomores, aged sixteen, would you find to-day this note of intellectual self-respect? After leaving college he taught school for a while, first at Flatbush, L. I., and then under H. H. Brackenridge, at Princess Anne, Md. In 1775 he is back in New York, writing political pamphlets and poems. He was launched in his career: hatred of the English and to the American Tories was his never-failing theme down to his death in 1832. It is not necessary here to recall the vicissitudes of his fortune; the various papers he edited, his political animosities, his alternations of literary work with cruising the seas and with farming. "The old hag Necessity has got such a prodigious gripe of me!" he wrote to Madison in 1772, and he never for long shook her off. Those who care to follow the adventures of a poet in the troubled days of "this bard-baiting clime"—and the story is well worth reading—may turn to Professor Pattee's admirable Life in the present edition.

II.

Of two periods in his career, however, a word must be said. In November of 1775 he sailed for Santa Cruz with a West Indian gentleman, who owned large estates on the island. During the voyage the mate of the vessel died, and Freneau was put in the place. A good deal of his life thereafter was passed on shipboard as mate and master, so that he is one of the few poets who write of the sea with complete knowledge of the trade. It was no land-lubber who made the odes, "On the Death of Captain Biddle," on "Captain Jones's Invitation," and "On the Memorable Victory." Nor was his experience of the tropics without influence. The three long poems, "Santa Cruz," "The House of Night," and "The Jamaica Funeral," composed during his visit of two years to the island, are distinctly different in tone from the rest of his work. There is more color in them, more warmth of imagination. In the midst of much description of the ordinary amateurish sort, one comes upon a perfect image in a single line:

Fair Santa Cruz, arising, laves her waist;

or upon a stanza marred only by his inveterate taste for adjectives in "y":

Among the shades of yonder whispering grove
The green palmettoes mingle, tall and fair,
That ever murmur, and forever move,
Fanning with wavy bough the ambient air;—

or upon a whole passage of haunting, if imperfect, beauty, ending with a reflection that foreshadows, so to speak, the most famous line he was afterwards to write:

Along the shore a wondrous flower is seen,
Where rocky ponds receive the surging wave;
Some drest in yellow, some array'd in green,
Beneath the water their gay branches lave.

This mystic plant, with its bewitching charms,
Too surely springs from some enchanted bower;
Fearful it is, and dreads impending harms,
And *Animal* the natives call the flower.

From the smooth rock its little branches rise,
The objects of thy view, and that alone;
Feast on its beauties with thy ravish'd eyes,
But aim to touch it, and—the flower is gone.

Nay, if thy shade but intercept the beam
That gilds their boughs beneath the briny lake,
Swift they retire, like a deluding dream,
And even a shadow for destruction take.

Something more than southern warmth enters into the stanzas of "The House of Night." It is the fury of the sudden tropic storm that he tries to express in such lines as these:

Lights in the air like burning stars were hurl'd,
Dogs howl'd, heaven murmur'd, and the tempest blew,
The red half-moon peep'd from behind a cloud
As if in dread the amazing scene to view.

Poe himself never imagined anything more grotesquely weird than this account of the death and burial of Death, nor ever composed lines of more sombre magnificence than a few of those scattered through Freneau's poem; the pity of it is that so much power of imagination should have wasted through the poet's provincial training. The genre has its risks for the most wary hand, and how should Freneau escape without a fall? We hardly know whether to smile or shudder when he writes:

Each horrid face a grizly mask conceal'd,
Their busy eyes shot terror to my soul
As now and then, by the pale lanthorn's glare,
I saw them for their parted friend condole;

there is, unfortunately, less room for hesitation when he concludes this grewsome burial of Death:

That done, they placed the carcase in the tomb,
To dust and dull oblivion now resign'd,
Then turn'd the chariot tow'rd the House of Night,
Which soon flew off, and left no trace behind.

These poems were written during the first years of the Revolution, and far away from the scenes of battle; but Freneau was to learn the meaning of war at closer range. On one of his voyages to Santa Cruz, in 1780, his vessel was captured by a British frigate, and crew and passengers were carried to New York. Here for a while he was confined in the horrible prison ships, and immediately on being released by exchange he set himself to describe his experience in rhyme.

III.

The descriptive verse and satires that resulted from his travels were the strongest and most telling he ever wrote; as much cannot be said for the product of another period of his life. In August, 1791, he was appointed clerk for foreign languages by Jefferson, then Secretary of State, and went to Philadelphia to live. Two months later he issued the first number of the *National Gazette*, a semi-weekly paper devoted to the party of Jefferson against that of Hamilton, not without side thrusts at Washington, and to the favoring of French revolutionary democracy against British monarchy. That was not a day when political writers disguised their feelings, and between the *National Gazette* and *Fenno's Gazette of the United States* there arose as pretty a war of words as one might wish to hear. Freneau swore that neither the "*Gazette* nor the editor thereof, was ever directed, controlled, or attempted to be influenced, in any manner, either by the Secretary of State, or any of his friends"; and Jefferson in a letter to Washington made practically the same protestation. Professor Pattee inclines to defend Freneau through this whole episode, and certainly his virulent abuse can be matched, almost if not quite, by the diatribes of his enemies. On the other hand, it is not easy to defend him against Hamilton's charge, however indirect his relations with Jefferson may have been. His reputation in the end suffers as does that of all barkers at the heels of those who are trying in perilous times to establish order: to Washington he was "that rascal Freneau," to President Dwight he seemed "a mere incendiary, or rather as a despicable tool of bigger incendiaries"; he did not belong to what the Greeks in their days of faction used to call the *agathoi*, the good.

IV.

As for Freneau, the writer, those who expect to find in him anything more than a frustrated poet, a poet of hints and anticipations, will be disappointed; but to those who approach him in the right spirit, he will afford a genuine interest. There is a certain charm, a melancholy charm, if you will, in catching the slender tones of his lyric moods here and there through the noise and bustle of his political writings. And often in these notes one detects strange presage of the future. Sometimes these presages take a very definite form, as in that verse of "The Indian Burying Ground"—the most famous he wrote—which Campbell appropriated bodily: "The hunter and the deer a shade," and which Hazlitt, in his "Table Talk," misquoting as "a hunter of shadows, himself a shade," attributed to Homer's account of Orion. Another line of our poet's, "They took the spear—but left the shield," was, with the change of "took" to "snatched," borrowed by Scott, who knew Freneau's work well enough to call "Eutaw Springs" "as fine a thing as there is of the kind in the language." And a poetess of Britain went so far as to dignify the whole of one of his poems with her name. But the real anticipations of Freneau were rather his own outreachings after the romanticism that was preparing in England. "On Amanda's Singing Bird," for instance, sounds almost like a coarsened echo of Blake. Other poems point to the future. A set of verses on "The Power of Fancy," written as early as 1770, has a distinct suggestion of Keats's "Ever let the Fancy roam," which dates at least forty-eight years later. Another poem, "The Wild Honey Suckle," perhaps the most nearly flawless he ever wrote; combines in its rather pallid beauty something of Wordsworth's moralizing love of the less honored flowers with Keats's relish of fragility. It is brief enough to quote entire:

Fair flower, that dost so comely grow,
Hid in this silent, dull retreat,
Untouched thy honied blossoms blow,
Unseen thy little branches greet:
No roving foot shall crush thee here,
No busy hand provoke a tear.

By Nature's self in white arrayed,
She bade thee shun the vulgar eye,
And planted here the guardian shade,
And sent soft waters murmuring by;
Thus quietly thy summer goes,
Thy days declining to repose.

Smit with those charms that must decay,
I grieve to see your future doom;
They died—nor were those flowers more gay,
The flowers that did in Eden bloom;
Unpitying frosts, and Autumn's power
Shall leave no vestige of this flower.

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From morning suns and evening dews
At first thy little being came:
If nothing once, you nothing lose,
For when you die you are the same;
The space between is but an hour,
The frail duration of a flower.

Not flawless, for even a clever journeyman's hand could alter a word here and there for the better; not great in the sense that Wordsworth's and Keats's best work is great; colorless as a whole, yet with a clear, unearthly loveliness of its own. And the last stanza, despite the false "thy" in the second line and the slightly imperfect rhymes, would do honor to any poet of the past century. It has the slender brittleness of a costly vase, marred in the burning.

But Freneau's chief affiliations in the future are undoubtedly with Poe. No one could overlook that quality in such a poem as "The House of Night"; it is no less unmistakable in separate verses and stanzas scattered throughout his works. When he bids farewell to Columbus, in his poem of 1774, he dismisses the discoverer

To shadowy forms, and ghosts, and sleepy things.

In an earlier poem he writes, in somewhat boyish fashion:

Now, tho' late, returning home,
Lead me to Belinda's tomb;
Let me glide as well as you
Through the shroud and coffin too,
And behold, a moment, there,
All that once was good and fair—
Who doth here so soundly sleep?
Shall we break this prison deep?

Is not this in the very taste of "The Sleeper," although without Poe's power to touch the reluctant nerve of awe? To follow this vein of frustrated romanticism through his writings is as if we should meet with a Poe who had been snatched into the turmoil of abolitionism and the civil war, and all his music set ajangle by hate.

V.

It is true that a certain inclination toward satire showed itself from the beginning in Freneau's mind, side by side with his lyrical moods, and needed only the impulse of circumstances to develop. Naturally, however, this satirical strain was of the more humane sort, which sends us to the future for comparisons rather than to the past. Thus, the earliest of these poems, "The Adventures of Simon Swaugum, a Village Merchant," would require only a little more avoirdupois in the rhythm, a little more of psychological antithesis, to take its place among Crabbe's "Tales"; it contains, in fact, bits of genre painting which might be passed upon any but the most knowing as actually Crabbe's. Where he differs from the English humorist he tends to forestall the lighter, swifter manner of Lowell and Holmes. Now "Swaugum" was written in 1768 and printed in 1792; "The Library," Crabbe's first important publication, appeared in 1781, and the "Tales" not until 1812. To appreciate Freneau's originality it must also be remembered that in 1782 John Trumbull, in his "M'Fingal," was still trying to reproduce the form and wit of Butler's "Hudibras," tinctured, perhaps, with the more contemporary spirit of Churchill. "Swaugum," with two or three other genre tales, notably "The Expedition of Timothy Taurus, Astrologer," and "Slender's Journey," creates a regret that Freneau did not leave a complete picture of American society in this humorous-satiric vein. For, after all, it is not the poet of purest aspiration, nor the harsh denouncer of crime, that hands down his age to us as a breathing human reality; not Virgil or Juvenal, but Horace. It is by his foibles man lives for posterity; his greater virtues and vices make of him an example, not a companion.

But this kindlier satire was swallowed up in the passions of the Revolution, and Freneau produced a long series of dialogues, declamations, and caustic stanzas against poor King George and his servants. Occasionally there is a grudging humor in the ridicule; oftener mere blank invective. Far the strongest of these poems is the lurid account of his detention on "The British Prison Ship," already mentioned. Of all his ills the doctor's poison seems to have been the hardest to bear:

He on his charge the healing work begun
With antimonial mixtures, by the tun,
Ten minutes was the time he deign'd to stay,
The time of grace allotted once a day—
He drencht us well with bitter draughts, 'tis true,
Nostrums from hell, and cortex from Peru—
Some with his pills he sent to Pluto's reign,
And some he blister'd with his flies of Spain;
His cream of Tartar walk'd its deadly round,
Till the lean patient at the potion frown'd,
And swore that hemlock, death, or what you will.
Were nonsense to the drugs that stuff'd his bill.—
On those refusing he bestow'd a kick,
Or menaced vengeance with his walking-stick;
Here uncontroll'd he exercised his trade,
And grew experienced by the deaths he made;
By frequent blows we from his cane endured
He killed at least as many as he cured;
On our lost comrades built his future fame,
And scatter'd fate, where'er his footsteps came.

That is legitimate and effective satire; the indignation of the poet is fitted to the abject offensiveness of his theme. But too often he falls into mere shrewish vituperation:

Said Jove with a smile—
"Columbia shall never be ruled by an isle. . . .
Then cease your endeavors, ye vermin of Britain."
(And here, in derision, their island he spit on) . . .

There is more of the kind, which I shame to repeat, as Freneau himself was confessedly half-ashamed to write. And indeed these explosions of poetic rage have a sad way of losing their force with time, and degenerating into mere ill temper; for what is George III. to you and me that we should understand this hatred? It needs genius to be a good hater in literature. And if we turn with weariness from this scolding of the English, we are affected with something akin to distress at his railing against his own compatriots, Tory and Federalist:

What is a Tory? Heavens and earth, reveal!
What strange blind monster does that name conceal?
There! there he stands—for Augury prepare,
Come lay his heart and inmost entrails bare,
I, by the forelock, seize the Stygian hound;
You bind his arms and bind the dragon down.
Surgeon, attend with thy dissecting knife,
Aim well the stroke that damps the springs of life,
Extract his fangs, dislodge his teeth of prey,
Clap in your pincers, and then tear away.—
Soldier, stand by, the monster may resist,
You draw your back-sword, and I'll draw my fist.
Lo! mixt with air his worthless ghost has fled;
Surgeon, his paleness speaks the monster dead;
Part, part the sutures of his brazen skull,
Hard as a rock, impenetrably dull;
Hold out his brain, and let his brethren see
That tortoise brain, no larger than a pea——
Come, rake his entrails, whet thy knife again,
Let's see what evils threat the next campaign.

In that slough of civil discord were sunk all his raptures of liberty and his visions of "The Rising Glory of America." For not the least of his anticipations was his prophecy of America's empire, and the conscious assumption within himself of so many of the traits of the practical calculating American mind, side by side with its thin mysticism; as if the temperaments of Poe and Franklin were united in one person. Here you shall read lines in glorification of commerce and science, such as our national poet to-day, if such existed, might write; here you shall see the past disparaged in the classics, and that self-flattering absorption in the present which has sapped the very roots of the New World's imagination. And here too is the fullest expression of that spirit of rebellion and mutual distrust in which the country was unfortunately, if necessarily, founded, and which has clung to it like an inherited taint in the blood, marring the harmony of its development and suffering a partial expiation in the calamities of the civil war. There is a lesson for us to-day, and, in more ways than one, a little of humiliation, in the career of our first poet.

VI.

But let us rather take leave of Freneau in a different frame of mind. In 1798 he gave up active participation in editing, and retired to the family estate at Mount Pleasant, N. J., where he passed the remaining thirty-four years of his life. Politics were not entirely forgotten, and for a while he contributed to the Philadelphia *Aurora* and other papers a series of amusing letters which were afterwards brought out in book form—the best of his prose writings. But for the most part his time was given to farming in a half-hearted way, and to composing verses under the shelter of a grove that had been started by his father. Professor Pattee gives a happy picture of the poet in his declining age, from the account of Dr. John W. Francis in Duyckinck's "Cyclopædia of American Literature":

He was somewhat below the ordinary height; in person thin, yet muscular, with a firm step, though a little inclined to stoop; his countenance wore traces of care, yet lightened with intelligence as he spoke; he was mild in enunciation, neither rapid nor slow, but clear, distinct, and emphatic. His forehead was rather beyond the medium elevation, his eyes a dark gray, occupying a socket deeper than common; his hair must have once been beautiful, it was now thinned and of an iron gray. He was free of all ambitious displays; his habitual expression was pensive. His dress might have passed for that of a farmer. New York, the city of his birth, was his most interesting theme; his collegiate career with Madison, next. His story of many of his occasional poems was quite romantic. As he had at command types and a printing press, when an incident of moment in the Revolution occurred, he would retire for composition, or find shelter under the shade of some tree, indite his lyrics, repair to the press, set up his types, and issue his productions. There was no difficulty in versification with him. I told him what I had heard Jeffrey, the Scotch Reviewer, say of his writings, that the time would arrive when his poetry, like that of Hudibras, would command a commentator like Gray.

That learned commentator has not yet appeared, and is scarcely needed; but it is agreeable to think of the old poet, in his not ignoble retirement from the world, hearing such dearly-earned praise and finding in the future a compensation for the harsh treatment of the past. Princeton has done well to honor one of the most dis-

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tinguished of her sons by publishing his principal poems in substantial form.

P. E. M.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

Volume XXI. of "Book-Prices Current," covering the English auctions from October, 1906, to July, 1907, just issued by Elliot Stock, records 7,167 lots, selected from about 31,800. The total payment for them was nearly £134,000, or an average of £4 4s. 2d. per lot, the highest average since the record has been kept. J. H. Slater, the editor, says that only printed books and manuscripts of a literary character have been included in his total, mediæval illuminated manuscripts, some of which have brought large sums, being excluded. These manuscripts are, however, described. He says that at present competition is confined chiefly to the "early editions of the English classics, important manuscripts, books containing inscriptions, and Americana"; and that, "speaking generally, all others are, if anything, cheaper than they were seven or eight years ago." The enhanced values of such books and manuscripts as are most sought for he ascribes largely to American competition. The indexes to the recent volumes are much fuller than those of the earlier volumes. Here the index fills a hundred pages, in double columns of small type. Besides the description of the book, the price paid, and the buyer's name, Mr. Slater has, as heretofore, added to some of the more important lots bibliographical notes, either his own or quoted from the sales catalogues. In describing Churchyard's "Prayse and Reporte of Maister Martyne Froboishers Voyage to Meta Incognita," London, 1578, he follows the auctioneer's catalogue in describing it as "the first edition in English of Frobisher's first voyage." In our own notes in this column of the sale, which took place March 15 and 16, we fell into the same error; for the book had never been reprinted and no copy was then known in America. Later, however, in examining the book itself, which is now owned by a private collector in New York, we discovered that the narrative indubitably referred, nôt to Frobisher's first voyage of 1576, but to the second of 1577, of which another and more authentic account by Dionyse Settle had been already printed. The earliest printed account of the voyage of 1576 is in George Beste's "Three Voyages for the Discoverie of a Passage to Cathaya by the Northwest." To Mr. Slater's record of the sale of the rare "Relation of Maryland," 1635, for £400 on the same date, Mr. Slater adds: "The last copy (complete with the rare map) sold by auction, realized £76. That was at the Simon sale, December, 1893; and the copy, then the property of Mr. Lefferts, was afterwards destroyed in a fire at Riviere's bindery in London. There was, however, a perfect copy of the book among the choice Americana sold by Lord Ashburton at Sotheby's, November, 1900. That copy, which brought £165, also came to America.

Almost simultaneously with the "Book-Prices Current" we receive Part IV. of its competitor, "Book-Auction Records," which, in some respects, deserves notice first. "Book-Prices Current" is arranged chronologically by sales, and a reference to the index is absolutely necessary to find any particular record. The newer "Book-Auction Records," which is edited by Frank Karslake, is published quarterly, the lots in each number are arranged alphabetically by authors, and an index to the entire volume is given with the fourth part. "Book-Auction Records" is a less pretentious publication. The transcripts of titles are more condensed, the book is printed in smaller type on poorer paper, and is offered at a lower price (£1 1s., against £1 7s. 6d.); its records are, however, much fuller. The volume just completed (the fourth) contains 15,131 records, more than twice as many as the older. As all such publications are primarily consulted for prices, Mr. Karslake's record should recommend itself more generally to booksellers and collectors. Each number of "Book-Auction Records" contains also, in addition to alphabetical record of sales, some prefatory matter of interest. This present No. 4 contains a sketch of the libraries and book trade of Dublin by Michael J. Ryan (with a half-tone of Trinity College Library), a reproduction, in colors, of a portrait of Benjamin Disraeli, from the *London Magazine* of 1840, and a series of notes, more or less bibliographical, by the editor.

It cannot be said that the late Levi Z. Leiter was possessed by the book collecting zeal, but he followed good advice when he did buy, and obtained excellent examples of early Americana and English literature. His library has been catalogued by Hugh A. Morrison, and one hundred copies printed for private distribution. The descriptions are full and accurate, drawn from many sources, and the volume is of bibliographical value. Mr. Leiter purchased in 1879 the manuscripts of David Hartley, but made no other important venture in that direction. Nearly one-fifth of the catalogue is taken up with the issues made in the Confederate States, 1861-1865. Worthy of special mention are the early Pennsylvania issues (Bradford and Keimer), tracts by Keith and Eliot, the material on the persecution of the Quakers in Massachusetts, and Jefferson's own copy of the London issue of the "Notes on Virginia." It is the judicious notes and collations of Mr. Morrison that confer value on this handsomely printed catalogue.

Charles A. Flagg of the Library of Congress, has compiled a "Guide to Massachusetts Local History," which is intended to give by counties the more important publications on local history. A map of each county, with the cities and towns, is prefixed to its section, making reference simple. Naturally such a list could be accomplished with success only by excluding some classes of material, and the specialist might complain at some omissions. But the inclusion of manuscript material, magazine and newspaper articles, and even of volumes in preparation, will compensate for these omissions. To the genealogist, this guide will be useful, while its merits to the historian may be tested by consulting the article "Salem Witchcraft." Even the bibliographer will find help—as in the editions of Mary Rowlandson. It is issued by the Salem Press Co.

The Anderson Auction Company of this city sells on Wednesday and Thursday afternoon, October 16 and 17, a collection, including thirty lots on tobacco, some old plays by Beaumont and Fletcher, Congreve, John Dennis, Shadwell, and others: and first editions of Emerson, Holmes, and Thoreau, etc.

"One Hundred Years of Book Auctions: Being a Brief Record of the Firm of Hodgson & Co.," is a book issued from the Chiswick Press, for private circulation, giving the history of the hundred years of this London house.

Correspondence.

HISTORY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with much interest the communications which have appeared in the recent numbers of the *Nation* on history teaching. Mr. Abraham Flexner's vigorous letter in your issue of September 26, appears on the surface at least to be an attack on the report of the Committee of Seven; unfortunately, it is based on imperfect knowledge: "The epoch-making report" did not order text-books off the premises; neither did it advocate that an American boy should be free to choose between the Constitution of Kleisthenes and the Constitution of the United States. It did not propose to make ancient history the centre. In fact the whole tenor, temper, and content of that report is different from what Mr. Flexner appears to consider it. It is true it recommends that, if a four-year course in history is given in a high-school, ancient history should be offered in the first year; but this recommendation is based in part on the fact that pupils generally spend some years on American history and civics before entering the high-school. Personally I agree with what I think Mr. Flexner advocates; if I had only one year to give to history, I should not spend it on ancient or mediæval history, but on American history and institutions. Personally I deplore the old-fashioned practice still maintained in a good many schools of insistence on ancient history, and above all of requiring ancient history from students of the classics who have the most appalling need of American history. But nothing in the "epoch-making report" makes against this emphasis of American history; in fact, quite the contrary, was it not a decided breaking away from the old system to recommend that modern fields of history be accepted by the colleges? Personally—and I here appear to differ with your correspondent, however—I have no patience with this idea, which may be good psychology, but is bad common sense, that you must begin with the familiar, the uninteresting, the near, the unappetizing, and gradually lead the unwary pupil far afield. I find my own children much more interested in Moses and Daniel than in Patrick Henry or E. H. Harriman, and the more unreal the fairy story, the easier is it digested. My boy of eight studies mediæval armor and attacks feudal castles, with unremitting zeal, and takes no particular interest in the very actual terrors of the purlieus of Hyde Park. But if Mr. Flexner's experience has been different, nothing in the report of the Committee of Seven need give him pause. However much we differ in our pedagogical psychology, I am one with him in the ad-

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vocacy of American history. If the report has been epoch-making, it is in part because it proposes a wider freedom and more room for the tastes and desires of the individual teacher and school.

Prof. William MacDonald, in your issue of September 12, calls attention to the dissatisfaction of teachers with the extended limits of the ancient field as marked out in the report. I don't know how to say forcibly and yet with courtesy and good humor how trivial this matter appears to be. Are not these precise limits supremely unimportant in light of the fact there are so many serious difficulties in the way of making history an effective study in the schools? If any teacher wishes to begin with Thermopylæ and stop with Actium, would any hardened theorist forbid him? And how little difference any limits will make, if he teaches with enthusiasm, zeal, and—knowledge! The report of the Committee of Seven was written ten years ago, at a time when in a majority of schools, and especially in the West, general history covering the whole field of man was taught in one year. From students of the classics, whose studies in other lines were accentuating their ignorance of modern life, ancient history was commonly required, and it was treated as something apart from the general progress of the world, a detached bit. If ancient history could be so extended as to have attachments, it appeared desirable to make the change. Moreover, the real difficulty was to suggest a plan for covering mediæval and modern history in one year, a field tremendously complex and difficult in comparison with ancient history. I do not think any one on the committee supposed that, when schools were commonly devoting but one year to general history, there would be an outcry against the possibility of getting as far along in the subject as 800 A. D. in the same length of time. But how unimportant this matter is! Surely no college in its senses is going to demand a strict adherence to any such limits, if a teacher can get better results with work in a smaller field.

Professor MacDonald's remarks on the vagueness of the misinformation generally elicited by a history examination are too well founded. What are we going to do? I do not think that history is the only offender. Is it not true that in all subjects, with the possible exception of Latin and moribund Greek, the pupils are allowed to indulge in inaccuracies and to familiarize themselves with inexactness? Do not students who come to college without any history disclose the same repugnance to precise learning as do those that have been led into the pleasant paths of dalliance by some new method of teaching history? The trouble lies a good deal deeper than in any method of teaching history. It is altogether unlikely that the recommendations of the "epoch-making report" caused these conditions. Without insisting that history is only in bed with a lot of other miserable companions, we are entitled to emphasize the fact that here is the great problem for us. If we cannot get clear-headed accuracy about either Kleisthenes or Patrick Henry, it does not make much difference what field of history is selected for the amusement of the pupil.

In an effort to escape our difficulty, must we return to the old-fashioned text-book method and beat blocks of well-chiselled history into our children's heads? Probably it would be better to stop teaching history altogether or to stop going through the entertaining motions. At the bottom the trouble—in so far as it is not due to a prevailing air of laxity, weak-kneed good-humor, and a dread of stern insistence on thoroughness—rests in the supreme difficulty of teaching history well and in the lack of preparation of the teacher. As long as it is thought that any one can teach history, even if he has not studied it, and as long as time is not given for the teacher thoroughly to prepare himself for each day's task, so long will history occupy a distinguished position among the diseducational subjects. Latin and Greek have gradually in the course of centuries been shaped into nearly perfect educational tools. Those of us who are teaching history must approach our novel task with patience and courage. But to surrender the ground gained and hurry back to the unencumbered text—what would we think of the teacher of science if he turned the key in the laboratory? Perhaps all the new methods are frantic efforts to reach the impossible, and I believe in many instances teachers without suitable apparatus attempt too much, and would succeed better by adhering more closely to a text. But on the whole the trouble is, not that we have gone too far, but that we have not gone far enough. In poorly equipped classrooms, with overworked teachers, without time and patience and materials, we are seeking to attain the ideal. Even such a course as that recommended by Mr. Flexner would not be a great success without books and a place to use them, or without a live, inspiriting, widely read teacher.

A. C. McLAUGHLIN.

University of Chicago, October 1.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Probably the failure of the "epoch-making" system of teaching history, referred to in issues of the *Nation* for September 12 and 26, may be attributed to the fact that due allowance was not made for the immaturity of the students. This is one of the commonest and most grievous faults of modern pedagogy. Courses of study are generally laid out by people of mature mind who forget one essential factor of the problem—that a child is a child, and that a youth is an immature person mentally and physically. A method of teaching which may be suitable for the senior year of college or for a post-graduate course, is decidedly not suitable for the high school.

The ordinary high school teacher is also rather too immature, at least to teach history well. It is said that almost any one who knows the subject and is enthusiastic can teach high school mathematics fairly well, without knowing much else of the world. But history, properly taught, overlaps sociology, economics, psychology, and anthropology almost imperceptibly. Not that the sixteen-year-old student should make a formal study of these subjects; but the perhaps forty-year-old teacher should be familiar with the cardinal principles of such overlapping subjects, and use them to explain and illuminate facts under consideration in the classroom. It hardly needs to be added that under political, social, and economic conditions in America to-day such ideals of the teaching force are generally impossible of realization.

The public school man and the preparatory school man have to do their own thinking and fight their own battles. The university professor and specialist in pedagogy and educational psychology can render slight, if any, aid. The latter are too prone to build air castles based on false assumptions. Assuming ample equipments, abundance of available time, lack of other attractions, and maturity of teacher and student, it is easy to spin theories and to elaborate courses of study. The fallacy lies in the premises, which in almost every case are false. The marvel is that the secondary school people were ever fatuous enough to try the experiment. The conviction is gradually growing that, in history teaching in secondary schools, under conditions as they actually are, about all that can be done and done well is frankly to use the one best available text book on the subject. In a book on history for the immature the chief art consists in leaving out things that can be omitted, and in laying emphasis on important facts. Perhaps the relation of each fact cannot be referred to a preceding fact as a cause; but enough can be correlated to give the youthful student a fair idea of the purpose of historical study—even at the age of sixteen. At least there ought to be no difficulty in enabling him to form a picture, approximately correct, even if lacking in details, of the conditions of human life in the period studied, the mental equipment of people, their modes of reasoning, their views of their rights and duties, their acquaintance with, or more probably ignorance of, the experiences of the human race in other times and under different conditions. But probably no longer shall we see a youth of sixteen, who is traversing the path of history for the first time, turned loose on original documents and controversial works. Like the Irishman, he can't see the forest for the trees.

E. L. C. MORSE.

Chicago, September 28.

Notes.

A memorial volume containing essays and letters by the late Wendell Phillips Garrison will be published as soon as the material can be collected and arranged. Many characteristic letters are doubtless in the possession of contributors to the *Nation*, and of the late editor's friends, who will confer a favor by selecting such as they deem suitable and sending them to Philip McKim Garrison, Llewellyn Park, Orange, New Jersey. Such letters will be carefully preserved and returned as soon as possible to their owners.

The Clarendon Press announces the following books as forthcoming: "The Life of Christ in Recent Research," by Dr. William Sanday; "The Psalter with Annotations," by J. M. Thompson; "The Mirror of the Blessed Lyf of Jesu Christ," translated from the Latin by Nicholas Love, edited by Lawrence F. Powell; an annotated edition of Coleridge's "Biographia Literaria," in two volumes, by John Shawcross; "The Writing of English," by P. J. Hartog, with the assistance of Mrs. A. H. Langdon; "Se-

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lect Passages of English Prose," collected and put into phonetic transcription by Daniel Jones; "Rob Roy," edited by R. S. Rait; "Legend of Montrose," edited by G. S. Gordon; "Woodstock," edited by J. S. C. Bridge; the third volume of "The Oxford Treasury of English Literature," by G. E. and W. H. Hadow; Sidney's "Apologie for Poetrie," edited by J. Churton Collins; Aeschylus's "Prometheus," translated by R. Whitelaw; Aeschylus's "Agamemnon," translated by J. Conington; "Ancient Britain and the Invasions of Julius Cæsar," by T. Rice Holmes; "English Society in the Eleventh Century: Essays in English Mediæval History," by Poul Vinogradoff; "Anglo-Chinese Commerce and Diplomacy: Mainly in the Nineteenth Century," by A. J. Sargent; "Court Minutes of the East India Company, 1635-1639," edited by W. Foster; "Life and Letters of Sir Henry Wotton," by Logan Pearsall Smith; "History of the Peninsular War," vol III., by Prof. C. W. C. Oman; "The Rise of the Greek Epic," by Gilbert Murray; and the third edition of A. E. Haigh's "Attic Theatre," revised and in part rewritten by A. W. Pickard-Cambridge. The following additions will be made to the various series issued by the Clarendon Press: Oxford Poets: Thomas Campbell, edited by J. Logie Robertson; Tudor and Stuart Library: Shakespeare's "Sonnets and Lover's Complaint," with an introduction by W. H. Hadow; and Minor Poems of Drayton, chosen and edited by Cyril Brett; Oxford Library of Prose and Poetry: Coleridge's Literary Criticism; Poems of William Collins; and Selections from the Poems of William Clare, with an introduction by Arthur Symons; Oxford Classical Texts: Cicero's Speeches against Verres, edited by W. Peterson; Oxford Library of Translation; Hesiod, by A. W. Mair; and Heine's "Buch der Lieder," by J. Todhunter; Oxford Modern French Series: "Voyage aux mers polaires," by Lieut. René Bellot, edited by H. J. Chaytor; "Servitude et grandeur militaires," by Alfred de Vigny, edited by C. L. Freeman; and "Le Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre," by Octave Feuillet, edited by J. Laffite; Oxford Higher French Series: "Iambes et poèmes," by Auguste Barbier, edited by Ch. M. Garnier; "Contes et nouvelles," by Prosper Mérimée, edited by J. E. Michell; and "La Légende des siècles," by Victor Hugo, edited by G. F. Bridge.

The McClure Co.—as McClure, Philips & Co., is henceforth to be called—announces for immediate publication two new volumes in the Temple edition of Molière: "Les Femmes savantes" and "Les Jalousies de Barbouille." The same house has begun a series of monographs "to present authoritative studies, in brief compass, of principal personalities and topics in contemporary literature and art." The series is edited by Georg Brandes, three volumes being now ready: "Richard Wagner as Poet," "Maxim Gorki," and "Aristotle."

Twenty-four new titles will be added this year to the World's Great Classics edited by Henry Morley and published in this country by A. Wessels Co. Sterne, Browning, Dickens, Goldsmith, Tennyson, and Poe are among the authors represented.

E. P. Dutton & Co. are publishing this week "A Year in Russia," by Maurice Baring; "English Church Furniture," by J. Charles Cox and Alfred Harvey; and "The Care of the Body," by Francis Cavanaugh. To their New Universal Library they are adding Newman's "Apologia Pro Vita Sua," and Macaulay's "History of England."

Henry Holt & Co will publish soon a volume of essays on "The Greater English Poets of the Nineteenth Century," by William Morton Payne. The book contains studies of Keats, Shelley, Byron, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Landor, Browning, Tennyson, Arnold, Rossetti, Morris, and Swinburne.

George III. and his court have been the subject chosen by Lewis Melville for two volumes of historic reminiscences and anecdotes. They will be published by Brentano's as "Farmer George."

The Franciscan Fathers at St. Michaels, Arizona, propose to publish the Dictionary of the Navajo Language, upon which they have been engaged for the past ten years. The dictionary will contain a series of articles on Navajo religion, ceremonies, arts, and industries, each to be followed by a list of the Navajo terms employed, with more or less detailed explanation. This descriptive text will comprise articles on the industries, weaving, dyeing, silver working, basket-making, etc.; also lists of Navajo names of persons and places, star names, and names of plants and animals. The work may be best described as an ethnologic dictionary. It is proposed to print it at St. Michaels, Ariz. The edition will be limited to not more than 200 numbered copies, of which only 180 will be sold, at a price of $5 per copy. Stewart Culin of the Brooklyn Institute Museum has undertaken to bring the enterprise to the attention of scholars, and he will receive subscriptions.

Prof. Richard Holbrook of Bryn Mawr has discovered in Italy two unedited letters of Byron, one of them containing a mention of Allegra. He intends to publish them soon.

Frederick Law Olmsted's books on the ante-bellum South being long out of print, and copies hard to come by, the Putnams do well to go on with their reissue. They now add "A Journey in the Back Country," in two volumes. The late E. L. Godkin maintained that these travels of Olmsted deserved to rank higher than Arthur Young's in France. Certainly their minute observation, combined with wide range and sustained interest, strike one afresh on every re-reading.

"The Grandissimes," by George W. Cable, has been issued in a handsome illustrated edition for the holidays by Charles Scribner's Sons. The pictures are photogravure reproductions of drawings by Albert Herter. There are a dozen full-page and eight more smaller photogravures in the text.

"Great Golfers in the Making," edited by Henry Leach (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.), consists of slight autobiographical sketches by thirty-four exponents of the game, both professional and amateur. All but three of them are British. The stories are nearly all on one plan: Where I was born; when I got my first club; how I learned the game; where I won my first championship. Almost no direct instruction is given; but the theory of the book appears to be that golf fulfills the Arabian proverb that the fig-tree, looking on the fig-tree, becometh fruitful.

"Afield with the Seasons," by James Buckham (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), consists of brief essays on the most familiar sights and sounds of nature near home. The book would make much more enjoyable reading were it less heavily burdened with flowery and sentimental comparisons. It is disappointing to turn from such virile work as that of Thoreau, Sharpe, and Burroughs in his earlier days, to such desultory, shallow observations as these. Here and there an apt phrase occurs, as where the note of the cuckoo is likened to "a little muffled French clock striking twelve over and over again among the leaves"; but reiterated descriptions and forced similes in regard to the notes of song sparrows, robins, and bluebirds make but poor literature. The text is hardly worthy the title and decorative cover of the book.

Despite the fact that the life of the late Postmaster-General Henry C. Payne, which has been compiled by his friend William W. Wight and printed in Milwaukee for private distribution, is frankly eulogistic, it is an interesting and in many respects a valuable book. Mr. Payne was one of the cleverest and most astute politicians which this country has produced in the last quarter of a century. And he was rather a political manager than a political "boss." His strength lay more in his adroitness as a campaign organizer than in building up a machine based on patronage. His machine was the "Republican machine," not the "Payne machine." His long and successful career in business and politics was rounded out with his service as Postmaster-General in President Roosevelt's Cabinet. Here he was looked upon as the politician of the Cabinet, but he also proved to be the business man. He tried to administer his great department in a thoroughly business-like fashion. It was during his term that the widespread scandals were unearthed and punished. Mr. Payne made the mistake of discrediting the charges at first, and of believing that whatever evils existed could be quietly wiped out without undue publicity. But he came to see that such a course was impossible with offences so grievous, and he then proceeded to clean house with all the thoroughness of which he was capable. The account of the discovery and prosecution of these offenders has probably never been more fully or more fairly told than by Mr. Wight.

New light on the founding of America's great cities is always a matter of more than local interest. It is for this reason that Edward S. Mack's paper on "The Founding of Milwaukee" in the Proceedings of the Forty-fourth Annual Meeting of the Wisconsin State Historical Society (Madison, 1907) is worthy of notice. Hitherto the French trader Solomon Juneau, who established himself on the site of Milwaukee in 1818, and in 1846 became its first mayor, has been generally accepted as the principal founder of the town. Mr. Mack's investigations, substantiated by recently discovered documents, go to show that the project for building a town at this point originated with Morgan L. Martin of Green Bay, a pioneer judge and Congressman, who suggested the plan to Juneau, and became the controlling partner in the enterprise. Other articles in the same volume worthy of mention are P. V. Lawson's "Habitat of the Winnebago, 1632-1832," and

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V. S. Pease's sketch of Agoston Haraszthy, a Hungarian nobleman who, driven from his native land for political reasons, became a pioneer of Wisconsin in its Territorial days.

The third volume of the "Report on the American Manuscripts in the Royal Institution of Great Britain," issued by the English Historical Manuscripts Commission, includes the papers from July, 1782, to March, 1783. It was a time of comparative quiet, when conditions were foreshadowing peace, and all parties were preparing to settle the many little questions that would follow an actual agreement. Hostilities had ceased, and the British were concentrating their forces in the places most convenient for a final withdrawal. Some prisoners of war were being exchanged, an event which for years political considerations had prevented, and Congress even now was clogging; and the formal interchange of notes gave opportunity for the expression of courteous and even friendly wishes. "I have the pleasure to inform your Excy." wrote Sir Guy Carleton to Rochambeau, in August, 1782, "that I learn by the last pacquet from England that conferences are opened at Paris for a general pacification, an event which instead of these cold intercourses, may give me the happiness and honour of embracing your Excellency in peace." The Loyalists, though still embodied in corps, were turning towards Nova Scotia, where inducements to settle provided against disagreeable meetings with their former friends in the States. Some of the papers relate to the trial of Lippincott and the Asgill affair; but the larger part refer to claims, payments, and details, which are not of a warlike character. Light is thrown on the removal of the negroes, the relations with the Indians, and the efforts to force or entice the Hessians from the King's service. Nor should the few letters of Arnold escape notice, indicating a part of the price he paid for his treachery. The calendar has been carefully prepared by Henry J. Brown.

The second edition of "Rudolf Eucken's Philosophy of Life," by W. R. Boyce Gibson (The Macmillan Co.)—an excellent statement of Eucken's practical philosophy—differs from the first in that it contains an appendix dealing with the Jena professor's doctrine of "Activism." Activism is a form of Pragmatism, but the difference between the two theories is thus explained by Eucken:

> The Pragmatism which has lately made so much headway, especially among English-speaking peoples, is more inclined to shape the world and life in accordance with human conditions and human needs, than to invest spiritual activity with an independence in relation to these, and apply its standards to the testing and sifting of the whole content of our human life.

But Eucken's Activism is especially opposed to the "prevailing Æstheticism of today," which found its ablest representative in the late Eduard von Hartmann. Activism has in view the happiness of the common people, while Æstheticism is esoteric—the philosophy of an élite. The nature of Activism is best exhibited in its application to religion. According to the Activists, Christianity is in its essence "the truest type of religion, since it best answers the question, What can religion do for life?" This view has been made, in more than one country, the foundation of a new Christian apologetic.

Rudolf Eisler's "Geschichte der Wissenschaften" (Leipzig: Weber) is an attempt to present within the compass of one volume, and not a very large one, the most salient facts in the development of scientific endeavor. On the whole, the author has succeeded well and has produced an admirable guide, not merely for ready reference. The sections dealing with modern times might seem somewhat overloaded with names, at times surnames only, which has led to some confusion; for instance, in the case of the two Swedish writers, the historian C. G. Malmström, and the literary historian B. E. Malmström. The chapter on History, which includes literary history, may be taken as an example to point a few cases which should be rectified in a new edition. Among Swedish historians we miss such names as H. Hjärne and O. Alin; among literary historians the most important of all, P. D. A. Atterbom, G. Ljungren, and H. Schück; we find J. Tickner among American historians, but Ticknor, the historian of Spanish literature, seems to be unknown to the author. H. Hettner is given as author of "Literaturgeschichte des 18. Jahrhunderts," and again under English literature, where we look in vain, however, for the name of J. Scherr. H. Hallam's "Constitutional History of England" is given by title, but not his "Middle Ages"; and while a great number of German works on *Methodik* are enumerated, that by V. Langlois and C. Seignobos, which perhaps is more valuable than all the others, is not mentioned. On the whole, it might be said that *Hilfswissenschaften,* such as bibliography and methodology, have been slighted all through the book. The list of histories of the various sciences at the end of the volume is a useful addition, but the index, as only too often in places where such a tool would be of value, is a rather weak point.

A further indication of recent conservative tendencies in New Testament research is seen in the work of Prof. H. Lietzmann of Jena, entitled "Wie wurden die Bücher des Neuen Testaments heilige Schriften?" (Tübingen: Mohr) constituting No. 21 of the Lebensfragen edited by Prof. H. Weinel. Lietzmann, himself a protagonist of advanced theology, declares that it has now become evident that the old contention of the critics assigning the Fourth Gospel to the middle of the second century, because of the recognized influence of Gnosticism in this as in other writings of John, is groundless; and that the Fourth Gospel could easily have been written as early as the year 80 A. D., although for other reasons he prefers to assign it to about 110 A. D. This change in the attitude of criticism is owing to the fact that Gnosticism became a factor in Christian thought, not about 150, as has been generally maintained, but that the movement began before Christ and from the outset accompanied the development of Christianity in the Greek world. Accordingly, the passages in Ignatius and Justin the Martyr, which represented early church tradition, but which were weakened in their interpretation to harmonize with the older critical view, are now accepted at their face value.

The house of Hinrichs in Leipzig has begun, under the general title of Vorderasiatische Bibliothek, to issue a series of transliterated and translated texts from the literatures of western Asia that promises to furnish the student of history, theology, and literature with rich material from the ancient Orient. These texts are accompanied chiefly by explanations of their historical importance, the philological data being subordinate. The whole series is to fill perhaps three hundred sections, octavo, each of sixteen pages, to cost fifty pfennige; and each year to bring about twenty-five sections. As elaborated so far, the work will furnish inscriptions under six heads, viz.: Old Babylonian Kings, Assyrian Kings, Neo-Babylonian, The Achaemenides and Later Rulers, South Arabian, and North Semitic. There will also be Chronicles, Leases and Other Property Documents, Letters, including those of Tel-el-Amarna, Legal Texts, and Mythological Texts. Most of the material naturally is more or less old, but unpublished texts are also promised. The first volume of the series has appeared as a volume of 275 pages, entitled, "Die sumerischen und akkadischen Königsinschriften," edited by Fr. Thureau-Dangin. These inscriptions are arranged under twenty-one heads, evidently chronologically. An appendix follows, together with lists of abbreviations, signs, and proper names. A second volume is to follow in the near future, "Die Amarna Tafeln," in eleven monthly instalments. The series is not intended exclusively for specialists, but for scholars in general anxious to get as near as possible to primary sources.

The second of Putnam's French Classics for English Readers is Montaigne, edited by Prof. Adolphe Cohn. With the aim of this series we are sufficiently in sympathy, although it may seem unfortunate that the two first authors chosen, Rabelais and Montaigne, should necessarily be presented in so imperfect a form, Rabelais *pudoris,* and Montaigne *brevitatis causa.* Professor Cohn was wise in using Florio's translation, with its flavor of contemporaneity, rather than the more accurate version of Cotton. And no doubt it was well in general to select those essays which could be reproduced in full. But the result of applying this rule rigidly has been to make Montaigne look a little too regular and pointed, too much, in a word, like Bacon. And it has brought about one omission of a serious nature. The long essay called the "Apologie de Raimond de Sebonde" could not well be given complete in any book of selections; it would in fact leave no room for anything else in a volume of the size at Professor Cohn's disposal; but it would be perfectly easy, by omitting the long-winded excursions and irrelevancies, to reduce the "Apologie" to moderate compass, and Montaigne, without at least the heart of that essay, is simply not Montaigne. We must add that Professor Cohn's Introduction leaves much to be desired. No one expects or demands a profound disquisition at the beginning of a work professedly popular, but in view of the part played by Montaigne in French thought through Pascal and through innumerable other disciples, in view, too, of his important influence on English literature, a little more criticism and philosophy might certainly have been vouchsafed than Professor Cohn has deemed necessary, and, it may be added, in rather better English.

The Beilage of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung,* No. 35, contains an instructive ar-

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ticle on the secondary schools of Austria, and their proposed reform, from the pen of Dr. Hans Kleinpeter of Gmünden. While Germany has three kinds of secondary schools leading up to the university, each with a nine-year course, Austria has but two: the classical *gymnasium* with an eight-year course, and the scientific *realschule* with a curriculum of seven years. The former leads up to all the departments of the university, but its graduates are not admitted to the technological institutes; the latter does not admit to the theological, law, or medical departments of the university. One of the reforms in view is to equalize these schools in this respect as Germany has done with her three classes. A serious difficulty in Austria is the growing neglect of the languages as the basis of a humanistic preparation for the university, and the scientific studies are slowly crowding the classical into the background. As a result a Verein zur Erhaltung der klassischen Gymnasien has been organized for the purpose of contending against this innovation.

Following the examples of the Swiss, the Belgians, and the French, the Italians also have during the present season maintained so called summer universities, with special courses for foreigners. In Florence, particularly, an Associazione per la Difesa di Firenze moderna, with the assistance of the city authorities, is conducting such a summer institute during August, September, and October. The courses cover the study of the Italian language and literature, the history of Florence and of its arts, the interpretation of Dante's Divine Comedy, and kindred subjects.

David Masson, Historiographer Royal for Scotland, died at Edinburgh, October 7. He was born in 1822 in Aberdeen, and was educated at Marischal College, in that city, and at the University of Edinburgh. At the age of nineteen he began his literary activities in journalism in Aberdeen, but after two years of this work he went to Edinburgh, where he contributed to the magazines and engaged in other writing. In 1847 he settled in London. From 1853 until 1865 he was professor of English literature in University College, London; and from 1858 to 1865 he was editor of *Macmillan's Magazine*. At the conclusion of this period, he returned to Edinburgh, where he became professor of English literature and rhetoric. This post he held till 1895; in 1893 he was made Historiographer Royal for Scotland. He was also honorary professor of ancient history at the Royal Scottish Academy. As a writer, Professor Masson was known chiefly for his books on literary themes. His "Essays, Chiefly on English Poets," which appeared in 1856, is still one of his best-known works. It was reprinted in three volumes with additions in 1874. The first volume of his "Life of John Milton, Narrated in Connection with the Political, Ecclesiastical, and Literary History of His Time," appeared in 1859, and by 1880 all six volumes of this monumental biography were in print; "British Novelists and Their Styles: a Critical Sketch of the History of British Prose Fiction," appeared in 1859; "Recent British Philosophy," 1865; a biography, "Drummond of Hawthornden," 1873; "The Three Devils: Luther's, Milton's, and Goethe's," 1874; "De Quincey" in the English Men of Letters Series," 1885; "Carlyle Personally and in His Writings," 1885; "Edinburgh Sketches and Memories," 1892. As an editor, Professor Masson was one of the most industrious men of his time. He prepared a library edition of Milton's poetical works, in three volumes, with introduction and notes. He also edited two smaller editions of the same poet. He was the editor of De Quincey's collected works in fourteen volumes. Between 1880 and 1889 he prepared for publication the Register of the Privy Council of Scotland, volumes III.-XV. (1578-1627), for which he wrote introductions. He was also the author of many magazine articles, and a contributor to the "Encyclopædia Britannica."

Dr. Ludwig Busse, professor of philosophy at Halle and President of the Kant Society, has just died at the age of forty-five. Among his publications are: "Beiträge zur Entwickelungsgeschichte Spinozas," and "Streifzüge durch die japanisch-ethische Literatur der Gegenwart."

THE CAMBRIDGE MODERN HISTORY.

The Cambridge Modern History. Planned by the late Lord Acton; edited by A. W. Ward, G. W. Prothero, and Stanley Leathes. Volume X. The Restoration. New York: The Macmillan Co. $4 net.

As this great work, now beginning to near completion, goes steadily on its way, it gathers in each successive volume fresh contributors. Some of them are comparatively new to us, and probably to most readers, but all are pervaded by the same spirit of thoroughness and business-like attention to careful statement which characterized their predecessors in earlier volumes. The present volume contains chapters by seventeen authors. Four of these belong to Continental Europe. Émile Bourgeois, professor in the University of Paris, writes two chapters on French history, which deal with the reigns of Charles X. and Louis Philippe; Carlo Segrè, professor in the University of Rome, treats of Italy from 1815 down to the Calabrian rising in 1848; Rafael Altamira, professor in the University of Oviedo, describes the course of events in Spain during the same period; while to Russia and Poland are devoted two chapters from the pen of Dr. Szymon Askenazy, professor in the University of Lemberg. Among the English writers, Lady Blennerhasset; F. A. Kirkpatrick of Trinity College, Cambridge; Professor I. G. Robertson, H. W. C. Davis, E. A. Berrians, Prof. J. H. Clapham, Prof. Shield Nicholson of Edinburgh and W. J. Courthope (the eminent author of an elaborate history of English literature), appear for the first time in this work.

The volume carries us into times which lie within the memory of men still living. It omits the United States, already handled in vol. VII., but it carries the story of the rest of the world so far down as to leave only two more volumes to complete it. The nearer the history gets to our own time, the greater becomes the difficulty of handling the enormous mass of material and of finding room for elucidations and reflections, as well as for the narrative of events. The writers and editors have thought that narrative is more important than comment; and some of the chapters are little more than a highly condensed chronicle of happenings, which leaves no space for sketches of personalities or for summings up of the general character of a period, or the general causes operative on it. Of this we are not prepared to complain. The narrative can hardly be made so interesting when it becomes a dry chronicle of occurrences; but, after all, an exact record of facts is the main thing. Such a record is really more needed the nearer we approach the days within our own memory, for most of us know least about those days, and it is hardest to find really good histories dealing with them.

The present volume has brought forcibly home to us the value of such an undertaking as "The Cambridge Modern History," because it gives within the covers of one volume, in the compass of eight hundred pages, a comprehensive account of all the chief events in Europe and Spanish America during the momentous years which lay between the fall of the Napoleonic empire and the beginning of those new political movements which date in England from 1832 and in the European Continent from 1846-48. The parallelism of political development among the great countries of central and western Europe during that period is remarkable. So is the parallelism in their literary tendencies. This makes it all the more needful to study each country in its relations to the others, and with the others in view. The plan of the book renders such a study much easier and more helpful than it could otherwise be.

Volume X. is entitled "The Restoration." Everywhere in Continental Europe, a restoration was inevitable when the flood of Napoleonic invasion had subsided; but it took different forms in each country; and the reaction against revolutionary ideas and methods which each country witnessed bore in each a character peculiar to itself. Sooner in some countries, later in others, the movement of reaction against the Revolution spent itself, and was followed by a new counter movement in a revolutionary direction. There were unusually few wars, for every state came more or less exhausted out of the struggle between Napoleonic France and the rest of Europe. But in every state there were intestine struggles and disorders. The Greeks rose against the Turks. There was fighting in Spain and in Portugal. France expelled the elder branch of the Bourbons in 1830, and gave an unquiet life to the Orleans monarchy, which crashed to the ground in 1848. Italy was kept in constant unrest by conspiracies which occasionally broke out in revolts. Germany, with less open disturbance and fewer plots, suffered from the repressive methods of her sovereigns, and saw all the more patriotic and enlightened spirits struggling against those methods, till discontent flamed forth in the revolutionary movements which immediately followed the period here described. England, having got over her revolutionary epoch in the seventeenth century, suffered comparatively little from the reaction against France and Napoleon; and when the time came for her to popularize further her government, she did it without bloodshed in 1832. The interest and importance of this period for the European Continent lie in the fact that it was the seed time for the great changes which followed between 1840 and 1871, and

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which altered the whole map of Europe, creating national monarchies in Italy and Germany; dividing Austria, and establishing a constitutional monarchy in Hungary; setting up a democratic republic in France, and also narrowing her limits; reducing the area of Denmark, besides rendering the governments in nearly all the countries of Europe more constitutional than they had been before, and extinguishing the temporal power of the Pope.

One of the most instructive and best written chapters in the volume is that from the pen of Lady Blennerhassett, which traces the history of the Papacy and the Papal States from the restoration of Pius the Seventh to the election of Pius the Ninth. Advocates of the temporal power will find little to support their case in the description here given of the administration of this part of Italy, even under so good a man as Pius VII. and so capable and honest a statesman as Consalvi. Such a chapter as we find here is particularly useful, because this important branch of European history is hardly touched on in most of the current compendia, and seldom fairly dealt with even by those who have taken Italian history for their subject. Few phases of recent thought are more curious than the revival of Papalism as a doctrine, almost a philosophy, by Joseph de Maistre and Gioberti. Whether the theories these writers put forward had much practical effect or not upon the world—a point which neither Lady Blennerhassett nor M. Bourgeois discusses—they fell in with the current of opinion flowing at the time, an opinion which needed some foundation on which to establish ecclesiastical power as a bulwark against revolution; and they supplied principles to those who could not think out the principles which their own prejudices or emotions called for.

There were indeed many cross currents of opinion then running, and a chapter might well have been dedicated to an examination of them as they appeared in the several countries of Europe. Although the scheme of the history discountenances anything which approaches speculative treatment, a description of the various intellectual tendencies which were floating about in Europe and some of which were actually influencing politics, while others were forming the minds of the generation then coming to manhood and thereby determining the character of the epoch which began in 1848, would be of great value.

The introduction of chapters dealing with literary and scientific movements has been from the first one of the excellences of this series. In the present volume we find three such, all very well executed. Prof. Shield Nicholson writes upon the English economists from Adam Smith down to MacCullough, and in a terse manner indicates the contributions of each to the science which Smith may almost be said to have created. He does proper justice to the merits of Malthus, whom it is now the fashion to disparage. He brings out forcibly the fact that while the so-called orthodox economics were in full swing in the days of Malthus, James Mill, and Ricardo, there was also in existence another stream of opinion represented by the protests of Godwin against the existing structure of society, and by the attempts at collectivism which we associate with Robert Owen. He indicates that the fundamental notions that appear in the scientific socialism of Karl Marx had been already, some more, some less explicitly, given to the world by earlier English thinkers.

The other two chapters deal respectively with German and with English literature. Both are interesting; and the latter, by Mr. Courthope, has the qualities which readers of his remarkable book on the subject expect to find in all his work—fine taste, wide knowledge, and a graceful style. It is unfortunate that the plan of the book, placing America in a separate volume, has not permitted the literary movements of the United States to be treated in their connection with those of Europe. Mr. Courthope has, however, in a passage worth reading, sought to account for the powerful influence exercised by Byron in France, Italy, and Germany, as compared with the slight impression made there by four contemporary poets whom most people would now deem Byron's superiors, viz., Wordsworth, Coleridge, Shelley, and Keats. Mr. Courthope's view of the so-called Romantic movement deserves to be set beside that given by Mr. Robertson in the account of German Romanticism which we find in chapter xii. The difference and agreement between the developments of the new literary tendency in the two countries are thus brought more sharply into view. Both English and German Romanticism passed away; nor has any movement of equal force arisen to replace them. It is worth noting that German writers have exerted a comparatively feeble influence upon English. Walter Scott owed something to Goethe and to some of Goethe's contemporaries, such as Bürger and Tieck. Thomas Carlyle owed something to Goethe and to Richter. But those who wrote in English were less touched by German or French writers than both Germany and France were affected by Byron and by Walter Scott. On the other hand, Wordsworth, who left so deep an impression upon English poetry, scarcely moved the European continent at all.

In the period covered by this volume there is, of course, no single figure of what may be called European magnitude comparable to Napoleon. Neither, indeed, is the period, if we pass in review the several states of Europe, an age of great men. Royer-Collard, Villèle, Guizot, and Thiers in France; Canning, Castlereagh, Lambton (Lord Durham), and O'Connell in England, were remarkable men, but hardly as interesting as Bolivar, the hero of South American independence, or such representatives of intellectual movements as Chateaubriand and Jeremy Bentham. If the previous age is described as that of the soldiers, for round Napoleon and Wellington there were many brilliant military figures, this post-Revolutionary age may be called that of the diplomatists. The great Powers of Europe, having undertaken to deal collectively with the difficulties which the Napoleonic *bouleversement* of Europe had created, were constantly in communication with one another, and their leading spirits in each state were bent on exerting their influence on their neighbors. Even after the Holy Alliance had ceased to exist the ideas embodied in it held their ground at the Courts of Vienna, St. Petersburg, and Berlin. Thus one may say that the most conspicuous figures of the time, and certainly the most remarkable international figures, were Metternich and Consalvi. The next generation saw the emergence of new types in statesmanship, men who either leaned upon the people, like Cavour and Gladstone, or at least knew how to use and profit by popular sentiment, like Bismarck. What gives to the period from 1815 to 1848 its permanent historical importance is that the doctrines of nationality and popular sovereignty, which were destined to work such mighty changes, were being quietly prepared, and were imperceptibly making way during a time when reaction still reigned, and Metternich guided the policy of half the European Continent.

CURRENT FICTION.

Major Vigoureux. By A. T. Quiller-Couch. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

"Q," who is as capable of realism as the next man, maintains as a rule a genial preference for romance. He is apparently satisfied, as Stevenson was, with his rôle of master-entertainer. The character of Major Vigoureux might easily have been made the subject of a sterner treatment, but he is handled very lightly, and the whole story kept upon the romantic comedy plane. The major is commandant of a dismantled and half-forgotten naval post on certain inconsequent islands off the English coast. The garrison has dwindled to two, and their duties are simply to wait upon the commandant. He has lost his authority in the islands, and what with shame and apathy is in a fair way to lose all interest in life. He still receives his full pay, but fancies it must be continued through oversight; yet, for not ungenerous reasons, he lets the matter drift on. To the islands, under most picturesque conditions, comes an extraordinary person. She is a native of the islands who has left them as a girl to prepare for a public career, and after a great success as a singer, returns by a homing instinct to the little lonely isles of her birth. She is, in truth, a somewhat fantastic figure, dealing much in mystification and subterfuge, the uses of which do not always appear. However, she is the *dea ex machina* by whom all things are made straight. The tale is a most agreeable literary confection.

Three Weeks. By Elinor Glyn. New York: Duffield & Co.

About eight years ago, judging by "The Visits of Elizabeth," Elinor Glyn rightly impressed the world as fairly modern. In her present book she seems to have withdrawn into the early manner of—let us suggest E. Marlitt; every i is dotted, every t crossed, every event carefully, not to say obviously, prearranged. It would not so much matter that the plot is a perfect farrago of nonsense—of faithful Balkan servitors, kings in the offing (and the very queerest little baby of all the queerly fathered babies in fiction)—if the book were in the least amusing. But the sprightly wit of Elizabeth has vanished. The attempt at sentimental love making is positively disconcerting. The whole leaves a bewildering doubt—has Elinor Glyn become perfectly indifferent to her reputation or, by any

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mischance, is she beginning to take herself seriously? Unfortunately, several reputable libraries have tabooed this production on the score of immorality. If it had been for dulness and silliness, the cause of virtue would have been better served than by lending such rubbish the alluring glamour of impropriety.

The Car of Destiny. By C. N. and A. M. Williamson. New York: The McClure Co.

There is no reason why Mr. and Mrs. Williamson should not write fifty more novels on the same plan as this. For variety they could change the setting, the names of the persons, and the incidents. That would be enough. This is a description of several of the more interesting Spanish cities, strung on the thin threads of an automobile trip and a love story. The hero and the heroine fall in love—of course at first sight—at Biarritz. The heroine and her mother are whisked off through Spain in an automobile by the wicked Spanish duke whom this scheming mother wishes the daughter to marry. The hero follows in his automobile. The account of the roads, the country, and the towns is broken by the incidents of the chase—some of them highly melodramatic. The characters are equally theatric—mere lath and pasteboard. At the end the treacherous duke gets his deserts and the hero gets the lady; but so unconvincing is the characterization, that marriage as well as misadventure leaves the reader cold.

The Discoveries in Crete, and their Bearing on the History of Ancient Civilization. By Ronald M. Burrows. Pp. xvi., 244. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.

Scholars have looked to Crete for the solution of several important archæological problems; and since the withdrawal of the Turkish forces and the erection of a stable government made explorations practicable on that island, these excavations have been conducted with energy and have been followed with unusual interest by the general public. To uncover palaces and cities three or four or five thousand years old, and to find these unexpectedly modern in some of their appointments and comforts, with the arts highly developed, is a fascinating enterprise. The most extensive and exciting of these excavations have been conducted on the site of the ancient palace of Minos at Cnosus, or Knossos; and of this work, its leader, Dr. Arthur Evans, has rendered very prompt and satisfactory accounts, chiefly in the Annual of the British School of Athens, while the readers of the *Nation* have had excellent summary reports from time to time in letters from Oxford. But these excavations have continued for six years, and comparatively few American scholars have been able to combine and correlate the reports of the work of Dr. Evans at Cnosus, of the Italians at Phæstus (published not very promptly, and chiefly in the Monuments of the Lincei), of the work of our countrywoman, Miss Harriet Boyd (now Mrs. C. H. Hawes) at Gournia and Kavusi, of the excavations of the British at Palæokastro, of the discoveries of Mr. Myers in the cave at Kamáres, and of Mr. Hogarth in the Dictæan Cave—the fabled birthplace of Zeus—few scholars, we say, have been able to group all this material so as to secure a definite and harmonious picture which could be brought into comparison with the Mycenæan remains in Europe and with the discoveries of the British at Phylacopi on Melos. A general survey of the field was much desired, even though it must be tentative and preliminary, and leave many questions unsolved. For such a survey, our author seems well fitted. Evidently he has not only seen the excavations and the museum at Candia, and learned the last dates assigned in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford; he is in close relations with the excavators, and he has command of a large mass of publications—what is known as the "literature" of the subject.

The book, however, is not a handbook of discoveries in Crete, from which the reader may gain definite information with regard to every part of the field. The author avoids everything that might look like statistics, and prefers to give information discursively and indirectly. The reader would look in vain if he desired to learn when or how long the Italians were engaged in their excavations at Phæstus, or anything about the discovery of the Gortyna inscription with the famous code of laws. The statement with regard to Miss Boyd's work occupies only half a page, and is entirely inadequate. Doubtless much more would have been said about this, if her recent beautiful publication had been made earlier. Only the first two of the twelve chapters are devoted to anything like an exact account of the discoveries. After that the author seems to be writing for those who know what he means when he speaks of "The linear writing of Class A" (nowhere in this book made more definite), and who have open before them several volumes of the Annual of the British School of Athens, and of the Journal of the Hellenic Society—which, as he truly says, ought to be in every public library. The book has no ordinary cuts—but four plates, all good: a ground plan of the palace at Cnosus, a sketch-map of Crete, marking the sites of archæological interest, a strata section of one part of the excavations at Cnosus, and two vases from Agia Triada, near Phæstus. The first of these is particularly good and welcome, but little reference is made to it in the book itself. More illustrations would have been acceptable, but the author's descriptions are generally simple and intelligible, and he conveys a large amount of information incidentally.

The greater part of the book, chapters iii.-xii., is given to the discussions indicated in the second part of the title—the bearing of the Cretan discoveries on the history of ancient civilization. The author admits no doubt that Cnosus was the centre of the development of this culture, and so does not discuss this question. Between the neolithic age and the age of geometric ornament of pottery, Dr. Evans distinguishes nine periods, in an easily remembered scheme—Early Minoan, Middle Minoan, and Late Minoan, each in three divisions. Early Minoan I. is thought to correspond to the first four dynasties of Egypt. Dr. Evans takes a mean between the 3315 B. C. of Eduard Meyer and the 5510 B. C. of Mr. Petrie and assigns it indefinitely to the fourth millennium B. C. Middle Minoan begins about 3000 B. C. and extends to 1800 B. C. Late Minoan II., closing with the sack of Cnosus and Phæstus, begins about 1600 B. C., and ends before 1400 B. C., according to Dr. Evans. Professor Dörpfeld sees no objection to setting the destruction of the great Cretan palaces nearer the time of the fall of Troy and the sack of Mycenæ, or about 1200 B. C. Since the most important arguments for the Cretan dates are the connexions with Egyptian history, and Cretan periods are equated with Egyptian periods, the Cretan dates must be accepted as provisional, subject to the determination of vexed questions in Egyptian chronology. Late Minoan III. follows the destruction of the palaces, and is made to correspond to what is ordinarily known as Mycenæan. Says the author (p. 100):

> The great lesson that Cretan discoveries have taught us is that the art of what we used to call the good or mature Mycenæan type, is not on the upward grade, soon to be arrested by a catastrophe, but on the downward grade, with its catastrophe well behind it.

Criticisms on the term Minoan, as applying to the whole long period the name of a king who lived near its close, are acknowledged to be just. The terms Ægean or Cycladic are thought possible—but not Carian or Mycenæan, though the Minoans were probably akin to the Carians, and on the catastrophe in Crete, many of the survivors may have found refuge with their kin in Asia Minor.

The Minoans, according to our author, were not of Greek blood, and did not speak the Greek language, but belonged to that dark Mediterranean race, "the most gifted in the world," to which the artistic impulses in Greece, Italy, and Spain have been due. The Indo-Europeans, he says, "were not the men who created the mid-European culture; they were rather the men who destroyed it" (p. 196). They did not come to Crete early enough vitally to affect the Minoan civilization. The real glory of Greece and Rome, according to this view, does not belong to our kinsfolk who came down from the North, and held sway for a time in the South. The language of the invader prevailed, but the blood of the pre-Aryan was more persistent. This question was argued at greater length by Professor Ridgeway half a dozen years ago.

In spite of his not allowing the Minoans to be Greeks, and though the Minoan civilization died out gradually, our author thinks the Minoan religion had very great influence on later times. "The supremacy of the woman," *i. e.*, of the nature-goddess, "still survived where the old population was the stronger, or where its cult was rooted in the traditions of some local sanctuary"; and Professor Burrows finds her as Aphrodite in Paphos or Eryx, as "intellectualized into Athena" in Attica, and as Hera, "the goddess of power," at Argos, while she held on at Cnosus as Rhea, the mother of Zeus, and even has her influence to-day in the pilgrimages to shrines of the Blessed Virgin. In the sanctuary of a snake-goddess in the palace of Cnosus a single square equal-limbed marble cross was found, which some archæologists think to have been simply decorative, but our author holds that this "suggests the reason

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why the Greek world has always preferred that shape for the Christian symbol, as opposed to the Western 'Latin' cross, with its longer upright." All this is entirely fanciful, and cannot seriously be maintained.

Two criticisms may fairly be made upon the book. The English expression is often careless, and the tone in which the author refers to views with which he disagrees is unpleasant; what might pass in a familiar lecture is out of place here. The following sentence is a specimen of cryptic style which might be used as an example of what used to be called *enallage* (p. 78): [Mr. Evans's dates] "are not earlier than Berlin by nearly so many centuries as they are later than Sinai." The reader who opens the book here could hardly guess that this means simply: Mr. Evans's dates, it is true, are earlier than those proposed by Professor Meyer of Berlin, but they are much later than those maintained by Professor Petrie in his book on Sinai. The author ignores the fact that Professor Dörpfeld is still our highest authority on ancient architecture and all things pertaining to archæological excavations in Greek lands, and actually says that Dr Dörpfeld's architectural observations, with which he disagrees, were made in "seeking support" for a theory about the Carian civilization (p. 78); and Mr. Burrows uses with regard to Professor Dörpfeld the proverb *Quem deus vult perdere*. The views to which Mr. Burrows objects, according to his own statement, were based largely upon the report of Dr. Evans's paper, presented at the Archæological Congress at Athens in 1905, as published in the official *Comptes Rendus*. Surely, under these circumstances, gentle language toward Dr. Dörpfeld would be in place, if he were only the peer of the author. And, even if he were less distinguished than he is, he would deserve special consideration in view of the unusual courtesy and openness of mind which he has shown in archæological discussions.

The last chapter of the book has an interesting title, "Crete and the Homeric Poems," but most of the matter is an irrelevant argument against the unity of the poems. The author does not discuss the relation of the Achæan to the Minoan civilization, but says rightly, "the most important contribution that Crete has made to the Homeric Problem is that it has emphasized for us the greatness of the art whose memories are preserved in the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey.'" In obvious oblivion of the Homeric description of the Phæacian city, however, the author thinks that this was Cnosus, which was not fortified, nor on a promontory and accessible only by a narrow isthmus.

The Dawn of Modern Geography, Vol. III.: A History of Exploration and Geographical Science from the Middle of the Thirteenth to the Early Years of the Fifteenth Century (c. A. D. 1260-1420). By C. Raymond Beazley. New York: Henry Frowde. $6.50.

In the completion of his great work Mr. Beazley has done and more than done for the Middle Ages what Bunbury did for ancient times in his "Ancient Geography." We now possess in English a complete history of exploration and of geographical ideas from Homer to Prince Henry the Navigator. Mr. Beazley's work is indispensable both to students of the discoveries and of mediæval culture. We are somewhat disposed, however, to quarrel with his title and to think that "History of Geography in the Middle Ages" would have been more apt. The date where he stops, 1420, is more strictly that of the "Dawn of Modern Geography." From that date geographical knowledge is continuously and systematically extended and its conceptions revolutionized; such changes more properly denote the dawn than a long period which includes the decay, the standstill, and the beginnings of a revival of knowledge.

Going over Mr. Beazley's pages, one cannot fail to be struck with the great activity in exploration and travel exhibited in the century and a half before Prince Henry, by merchants, pilgrims, and missionaries. The narratives of these journeys Mr. Beazley has summarized, and in each case he has indicated the specific addition to knowledge. His first appendix enumerates the leading manuscripts extant of the texts of the authors reviewed in Vols. II. and III. and marks by an asterisk those which he has personally examined. The number of manuscripts of a writer and explorer is an interesting index of the relative diffusion and popularity of his work. Thus of Odoric de Pordenone (1286-1331), one of the most noted of the missionary travellers, there are seventy-three manuscripts in Latin, Italian, and French; of Marco Polo (1254-1324), the Venetian merchant, the greatest of the Christian travellers of the Middle Ages, there are eighty-five manuscripts in the same three languages; while of the fictitious travels of Sir John Mandeville there have come down to us 202 manuscripts in Latin, English, and French. By this comparison it will be seen that Mandeville had nearly three times the circulation of Polo. The printed editions tell about the same story.

The "Book of Sir John Mandeville," believed by Samuel Purchas to be the genuine record of the "greatest Asian traveller (after Polo) that ever the world had," is now known to be the ingenious, if unscrupulous, compilation of a physician of Liège, which was first issued between 1357 and 1371. As indicated by the number of manuscripts, its popularity far exceeded that of his principal genuine sources, Odoric de Pordenone and William of Boldensel. Indeed, the English version became a classic. A copy of the "Book of Sir John Mandeville" was in the possession of Columbus, and its notions reappear in his writings. Mr. Beazley, in a note, gives in brief the sources of the various sections. Of Marco Polo, the most interesting manuscript copy was the one presented by the Signory of Venice about 1428 to Prince Pedro of Portugal, a brother of Prince Henry the Navigator. Of the printed editions none compare in interest with the Latin one, translated by Friar Pipino, which was owned and abundantly annotated by Columbus and is still extant in the Colombina at Seville. That the great sailor based his explorations equally on data supplied by the real traveller and the ingenious compiler, need not surprise us to-day. In the first place, the materials of literary criticism did not exist; but second and more important, those facts in regard to the Pacific coast of Asia, in which Columbus was particularly interested, are treated by Polo in almost as fabulous a manner as by the author of "The Book of Sir John Mandeville."

Among the minor topics which Mr. Beazley discusses and on which his conclusions are given, are the Doria-Vivaldi voyage down the west coast of Africa in 1291, a two-century anticipation in its purpose of Columbus; the alleged Dieppese voyages to the west coast of Africa; and the colony of La Mine, 1364-1410, the genuineness of which he rightly denies. The tale of the discovery of Madeira by the romantic runaway lovers, Robert Machin and Ana de Arfet, Mr. Beazley characterizes as "a matter of no great importance," for, if genuine, it was "neither a true discovery nor likely to have had a determining effect upon Prince Henry, a careful student of older and better sources," relating to the Madeiras. The Zeni voyages to Frisland, Estotiland, and Drogio, so speciously defended by the late John Fiske in his "Discovery of America," are, in accordance with the researches of Storm and Lucas, rejected as legendary and fictitious.

Mr. Beazley considers in considerable detail the development of map-making, and reproduces by photographic process both maps and sailing manuals (*portulani*). Less fully than in the earlier volumes, the work of the non-Christian geographers is surveyed, but interesting and adequate summaries are given of the work of Edrisi and Ibn Batuta. Taken all in all, Mr. Beazley's third volume fitly crowns his work.

Die Literatur der Babylonier und Assyrer. Von Otto Weber. Leipzig: Hinrichs. 5 marks.

Dr. Weber's work is to be recommended as a safe guide to those who wish to obtain a general survey of the literary productions that accompanied the remarkable civilization of the Euphrates Valley thousands of years ago. Naturally a greater part of these productions are not literature in any modern sense of the term, such as the business documents, the school texts, the official letters, the astrological reports, medical works, and the collections of omens, but they are properly included in a volume such as Dr. Weber's; for such texts, even more than the literature proper, illustrate the intellectual activity of ancient Babylonia and Assyria. That activity was largely directed into practical channels. Such sciences as flourished—notably medicine and astronomy—were cultivated because of their relationship to the life and the fate of individuals. Dr. Weber has, in the case of each of the many subdivisions of his theme, given a general survey followed by carefully chosen specimens; while the copious bibliographical references are of value to the special student as well as to the general reader in directing him to the sources for a fuller study of the subject. The literary division in the proper sense is represented by the prayers and hymns, the numerous myths, folk-tales, and more particularly by the famous Gilgamesh Epic.

Naturally, in order to bring the volume within reasonable proportions, Dr. Weber had to restrict somewhat the number and length of the specimens and extracts furnished, but in all cases the translations are sufficient to convey a fair view of the character of each sub-

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division. His treatment of the school texts, which are exceedingly interesting because of the light that they throw on the pedagogical methods developed at a very early period, might have been somewhat fuller. Education, to be sure, was restricted chiefly to one class—to the priests and to those in training for the priesthood—but this limitation recognized, the provision made to secure a handing down of the knowledge and traditions of the past from one generation to the other was truly remarkable. Writing lessons, drills in grammar, mathematical exercises, commentaries on texts, examples of methods pursued in legal procedures and in divining the future, are abundantly illustrated in the texts that have in one form or another come down to us from the temple schools of Babylonia and Assyria. The chief source of our knowledge of this intellectual activity is still the royal library at Nineveh, discovered by Layard about fifty years ago and now stored, so far as recovered, in the British Museum. Though much of this material has been published, a considerable proportion yet remains to be studied.

It should be added that Dr. Weber's translations are made in all cases from a renewed study of the texts, and since he has in addition conscientiously consulted the studies made by other scholars, we can be certain to find in his renditions the reflection of the present-day knowledge. In a growing subject such as Assyriology this is important. Renditions ten years old become antiquated because of the steady progress in our knowledge of the language spoken in Babylonia, and it is necessary therefore from time to time to study the texts anew and embody the results of increased knowledge. Dr. Weber has done this for hundreds of texts, and for this service also merits the gratitude of all students of ancient culture.

The Growth of Christianity. By Percy Gardner. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.75.

Dr. Gardner will be remembered favorably as the author of "Exploratio Evangelica," one of the most able and useful productions of Broad Church Anglicans. The theme of the present volume, which is in the form of ten popular lectures, is the relations of Christianity with the various forms of culture and thought with which it has come into contact. The germ of Christianity is found in the Lord's prayer, and specifically in the petition, "Thy will be done," and its essential spirit is defined accordingly as a passionate devotion to the will of God as operative in the world. This vital plant of pure spiritual religion, which flourished in such simple beauty in the life of Jesus and his Apostles, has been obliged to maintain and increase itself in the most diverse environments and amid surroundings of all degrees of favor and untowardness. In Dr. Gardner's opinion the plant has preserved its essential character and virtue. Historic Christianity, despite degeneracy and corruption, is Christianity still. But as the Galilean faith was brought in contact with the great civilizations of the ancient world, it was compelled to absorb into itself many of their attributes, and to modify its outward forms accordingly. Dr. Gardner contends that such absorption of what is necessary for its growth is an inherent right of a living faith, and the modifications of Christianity under the influence of Greek thought, Asian mysticism, and Roman life, he describes as the "Baptism of Hellas," the "Baptism of Asia," the "Baptism of Rome." He contends that "ideas, thoughts, and beliefs, no less than persons, can be raised from a lower to a higher plane, can be changed in character, translated from the language of the ordinary and sensual life, or from the language of superstition, to that of the true life of the spirit." His lectures are therefore an essay in apologetics, defending the right of Christianity to include beliefs and practices which did not come within the vision of its Founder, but asserting at the same time an inner principle and essential characteristic which marks the bounds of possible assimilation, and excludes much which has been baptized into the name of Christ, though not into his spirit.

Dr. Gardner has surveyed the growth and progress of the Christian faith from a very interesting point of view. The reconciliation of a spiritual religion, existent in the forms of an outward culture, with the life and thought of a larger day, is always a difficult problem for those who are engaged in it, and a profitable object of study for those who can contemplate it as accomplished. The passion for the discovery of the essence of Christianity has led some to careless condemnation of all that was not in Galilee, and the bulb has been lost in the convolutions which have been discarded. Dr. Gardner discerns the essential spirit as clearly as any man, but does not make the fatuous blunder of regarding all that has transpired since the days of Paul as apostasy and sin. In contrast with Cardinal Newman, whose "Development of Christian Doctrine" he lauds perhaps too highly, he does not argue that Christianity grew by making explicit, by logical processes, what was implicit in its earlier teaching, but rather that it "expanded very largely by accepting what was in no way involved in its earlier teaching, in accepting and baptizing the results of the working of divine ideas in other fields than those of Judaism and Christianity." His view that the contributions of the nations to the Christian faith have been truly "baptized," transformed, and spiritualized, in many cases at least, may awaken new interest in the discussion as to the essence of Christianity which was begun by Harnack and Loisy.

The Theory of Good and Evil: A Treatise on Moral Philosophy. By Hastings Rashdall. 2 vols. New York: Henry Frowde.

This is the most considerable philosophical work yet undertaken by the well-known author of "The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages." While written primarily for the undergraduate, it nevertheless exceeds contemporary text books such as Muirhead's "Elements of Ethics," and Mackenzie's "Introduction to Ethics," in both range and thoroughness. As the author admits at the outset, there is nothing very original in his solution of the problems of moral philosophy. His aim is to elucidate, correct, and harmonize the older and truer ideas rather than to advance new theories. Yet we regret his laborious rehearsal of ancient controversies. Why should it be necessary again to argue the old charges against Kant's rigorism and Mill's qualitative hedonism, unless on the ground of a fresh examination of fundamental conceptions? Not only is the present book tedious by its superfluous historical discussions, but the constructive part is confused by the continual criticism of contemporary writers. Thus the author's account of "Vocation," though admirable in design, is merged into a gratuitous criticism of Martineau. Discussions of the problem of evil are appended to the study of Mr. Bradley; and there are lengthy criticisms of opinions which Professor Taylor once held but has recently retracted. It is to be regretted that Mr. Rashdall did not proceed directly to investigate the problems of ethics in the light of experience and of reason. As it is, his statement of his own view is too thin and intermittent to be effective.

In the first volume, Mr. Rashdall deals with the fundamental conceptions of ethics. His general theory may be stated in his own words:

> I have sought to show that the way to find out whether an action is right or wrong, when we are forced to consider such a question for ourselves without reference to some established rule, is to consider whether it will tend to produce for society in general a well-being or Εὐδαιμονία or good, which includes many elements possessing different values, which values are intuitively discerned and compared with one another by the moral or practical Reason. . . . This view of Ethics which combines the utilitarian principle that Ethics must be teleological with a non-hedonistic view of the ethical end, I propose to call Ideal Utilitarianism.

The elements of the good to which our attention is mainly directed are pleasure and virtue. According to Ideal Utilitarianism, virtue is the dominant element in the good, but pleasure and other elements have also intrinsic values of their own. Without criticising this theory at length, we may at least notice a fundamental difficulty. While, on the one hand, we are repeatedly told elsewhere that ethics should be teleological, on the other hand the author contends that virtue must be regarded as an element and as the dominant element in the good. These two ideas when united produce obscurity and confusion as the following passage shows:

> The view that we have arrived at is that the morality of our actions is to be determined ultimately by its tendency to promote a universal end, which end itself consists of many ends, and in particular two—Morality and pleasure.

It is certain that Mr. Rashdall has not sufficiently matured his doctrine to make it logically intelligible. The reader is left in doubt whether morality is valid because it is rationally deduced from a conception of the ultimate good, or because it is intuitively apprehended as a constituent part of the ultimate good. It is impossible to reconcile these alternatives or to adopt either of them without fundamental revision. If morality, or the life of duty, is to be established as the principle which is conducive to the supremely worthy end, it is necessary to define that end and then make it the foundation of the whole system. Only in direct relation to a single universal end is it possible to establish the universal validity of morals. For if there is no conception of a supreme end, if the good is but a collection, then, on teleological grounds, morality is a mere means to some particular end, and the mor-

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al is the expedient. To avoid this conclusion, Mr. Rashdall shifts his ground and seeks to show that the supremacy of morality as an end is intuitively apprehended. This, it is evident, contradicts the explicit statement that the value of morality lies in its conduciveness to some end other than itself. But if we forsake the teleological principle utterly, the situation is equally unsatisfactory. Unlike thorough-going intuitionists, Mr. Rashdall does not affirm the exclusive, but only the supreme value of virtue. Yet by making virtue interchangeable with other values, such as pleasure and beauty, he plays into the hands of the hedonist.

In the second volume the author examines what he regards as the metaphysical implications of ethics, but he hardly proves the propriety of introducing such a discussion into a treatise on moral philosophy. He is doubtless right in contending that ethical principles are incomplete without some general philosophical foundation, but he does not show that this is true of ethics more than of other sciences. Ethics may assume a "continuous self," but it is equally true that physics assumes an identical material object. For critical definitions of both of these concepts, it is necessary to resort to metaphysics developed independently and with reference to the whole system of sciences. But Mr. Rashdall's ethical metaphysics is inevitably one-sided and unconvincing.

The discussion is generally sympathetic—often entertaining, and in attention to details the author has been industrious and thorough. Yet the final impression left upon the reader is that of logical looseness and structural weakness.

His Grace the Steward, and the Trial of Peers: A Novel Inquiry into a Special Branch of Constitutional Government. By L. W. Vernon Harcourt. Pp. xii., 500. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $5 net.

This lengthy and erudite work falls into two divisions. The first describes the evolution of the Lord High Steward of England up to the reign of Henry VIII., and the second treats of the gradual working out of the principle that peers shall be judged only by their peers. In both sections it is Mr. Harcourt's delight to show the fraudulent basis of what have been honored as historic English institutions. His Grace the Steward of England had, for his original, simply the dapifer of the King's household, whose duties were little more honorable than those of milady's butler, and who had no prescriptive right to preside over any court whatever, or any right to bequeath to his son a dignity which he did not possess.

The second and more weighty half of Mr. Harcourt's book deals with the right of the peers of England to be judged in all cases of homicide, treason, and misprision of treason only by their peers. This peculiar right dates from 1400, when an act, supposedly based on the great English palladium of liberty, Magna Charta, was passed abolishing appeals in Parliament. Mr. Harcourt sets out to prove that in Magna Charta there is absolutely nothing which could justly be held to secure this right. He goes further, and shows that had Magna Charta been always correctly understood and accepted in its literal significance, it would have been no palladium of English liberty whatever—a conclusion in which Mr. Harcourt is in substantial agreement with Mr. McKechnie and other recent historians. As both Mr. McKechnie and Mr. Harcourt point out, however, it mattered little to the development of the English nation that Magna Charta was for centuries misunderstood. Into it were read the liberties which the people demanded. Its very name was a shield and a standard; and under its ægis Englishmen gained the rights which they only imagined that it was intended to confer upon them. It was not what it said, but what men thought it said, that gave it its influence in English political and social life.

It is not with Magna Charta as a whole, however, that Mr. Harcourt is concerned, but with chapter xxxix., on which the peers base their claim to peculiar privilege, and on which every Englishman used to believe that the sacred right of trial by jury was founded. In this chapter, King John pledged himself not to imprison, disseize, outlaw, exile, or otherwise destroy any freeman "except by the lawful judgment of his peers or the law of the land." It has long been evident to historians that this clause contains no mention of trial by jury. Nor, as Mr. Harcourt points out, does it establish for peers a right to a verdict from fellow peers. English sovereigns from Henry IV. to Henry VIII. felt that they fully conformed to the requirements, if they associated with themselves or with the presiding justice, some peers in the pronouncement of judgment. The formation of the Court of the High Steward for the trial of peers is traced by Mr. Harcourt not to the Great Charter or to 1400, the date assigned by Bishop Stubbs, and by Mr. Pike, author of the standard history of the House of Lords, but to the necessities and tyrannies of Henry VII. It was King Henry's determination to rid himself of the Earl of Warwick which brought about the institution of the Court of High Steward; and it was a similar necessity on the part of Henry VIII., when he thought his power threatened by the Duke of Buckingham, that secured its perpetuation. A fairly good precedent for such a court was to be found in 1415, when the Earl of Cambridge and Lord Scrope were condemned to death for treason by a court of peers presided over by the Duke of Clarence, brother of Henry V.; but the precedent on which Henry VII. relied, dated 1400, was a complete forgery whose true date was probably not earlier than 1499. This forged precedent, strengthened by the true precedent of 1415, was sufficient to give an appearance of validity to the trial of the Earl of Warwick, and to avert the outcry that would have arisen over an illegal execution of that great noble. "This court," writes Mr. Harcourt, in summing up the results of his researches, "was a fraudulent device for the degradation of the nobility generally." "On these grounds," he concludes, "I think we are justified in asserting that the Lord High Steward's Court has an origin which is neither ancient, nor obscure, nor creditable."

Mr. Harcourt's book is scarcely intended for general reading. Almost half the volume is taken up with long quotations, in mediæval Latin or Norman French, from patent rolls, charters, year-books, and letters patent. Besides full footnotes, Mr. Harcourt adds to each of the twelve chapters an appendix of these extracts running sometimes to over twenty-five pages.

Red Russia. By John Foster Fraser. New York: The John Lane Co. $1.75 net.

Russia and Reform. By Bernard Pares. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3 net.

Mr. Fraser's book calls for little serious attention. It is a journalistic piece of work, and that not of the highest kind. The pathetic, the dramatic, and the melodramatic are laid on with a heavy brush to the comparative exclusion of important fact or systematic presentation. Ample reason though there may be for comparing the present upheaval in Russia with the great Revolution of 1789 in France, there are writers who, in attempting to depict conditions in St. Petersburg cannot keep from dropping into the tone of Dickens's "Tale of Two Cities," with its wicked marquises galloping over the prostrate bodies of the *canaille* and lurid flames of Jacquerie lighting up the night. The present volume is an instance in point. It would have had far greater value if the text had been brought to equal in merit the large number of really excellent photographic illustrations.

In Mr. Pares's "Russia and Reform," we have to deal with a book of far different character. From one or two chance remarks in the course of its 568 large and closely printed pages, it would appear that the able correspondent of the London *Spectator* had set himself the task of producing a work that should rank with Mackenzie Wallace's classic volume on Russia; and on the whole, it may be said that he has succeeded in gaining a place close to Wallace and to Leroy-Beaulieu's "Empire des Tsars." In its range, method, and adequacy of knowledge and insight, it is certainly the best account that the Russian liberation movement which began in 1904, has brought forth. Its possible inferiority to the two standard works we have mentioned, in the matter of precision of analysis, may be due in considerable measure to the fact that Wallace and Leroy-Beaulieu were writing of an empire in its ordinary temper and condition, whereas our author has to deal with that empire in the turmoil of change and revolution. If certain parts, like the chapters on the Church or education, show a want of thorough, systematic, and complete treatment, they offer, on the whole, sufficient assistance towards the chief aim in mind, the comprehension of the forces now at work in the Czar's empire. On the other hand, the psychology of the Russian people, as important a factor as any that must be kept in mind by the student of Russian affairs, is portrayed with admirable insight, sympathy, and reserve. The chapter on the Lives of the Intelligents leaves little to be desired as a commentary on the character and ideals of men who are now remaking the history of Russia.

Mr. Pares is more successful in dealing with the present conditions than in treat-

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ing of origins. The opening chapter, in which he sketches Russian history from the earliest times, suffers from a certain turgidity of style. He presumes a general acquaintance with the prominent facts of that history, and, in consequence, it is to be feared that the average reader will be insufficiently prepared for accepting the writer's broad conclusions concerning the nature of Russia's development, which, in the main, are sound enough, and certainly illuminating. When the narrative comes down to what is practically our own times, that is, the reign of Alexander III., it becomes at once more direct and more serviceable. In the same way, the long chapter on the Press and the Censorship, running back, as it does, into the eighteenth century, in an attempt at completeness of treatment, fails, in spite of its minuteness, to carry forward the story appreciably. On the other hand, the chapters on Law and the Administration, the Zemstvos and Town Councils, and the Progress of the Peasants, offer a satisfactory discussion of facts essential to a correct knowledge of present conditions.

To write of present events in Russia without a fairly definite point of view, would be extremely difficult. Mr. Pares's standpoint is that of the progressive conservative of English politics. His sympathies go out most readily to the group of moderate men, who, as Conservative Reformers, Octobrists, etc., have played a conspicuous, but on the whole not very effective, part in the history of the last three years. The more radical reformers, best represented by the Constitutional Democratic party, he is inclined to think well of, while deploring their alliance with the elements that stood for violence. The extreme revolutionaries are to the author a mistaken, though quite comprehensible, folk. His own standpoint does not betray Mr. Pares into partiality anywhere but in the last chapter, which gives a useful summary of the liberation movement since 1904. We find his account of the general strike of October, 1905, and of the events immediately following unsatisfactory. The impression is there conveyed that the strike was merely an interjected event, which did not greatly alter the general progress of the liberation movement, whereas, in reality, the historic days before and after October 30, 1905, witnessed the birth of a Constitutional Russia.

In Wildest Africa. By C. G. Schillings. Translated by Frederic Whyte. With over 300 photographic studies and other illustrations. New York: Harper & Bros. $5 net.

This new work by the author of "With Flashlight and Rifle" consists mainly of nature studies in that part of the world where animal life is most abundant and man least evident, East Africa. Experiences and impressions of this life in its wonderfully varied forms, gained during long hours of watching by day and by night from a hill top, the branch of a tree, or the tent door, are here recorded, and the result is a book which is unique. As one reads of the stillness of the forest being broken by the rush of an elephant, a rhinoceros, or a herd of gazelles into the open, a photograph on the opposite page makes one realize the scene with extraordinary vividness. Not only the sights but the voices of the wilderness are described, from the songs of the birds, including larks and nightingales, to the laugh of the hyena and the roar of the lion. Among the most thrilling of these noises is the music of the gallnuts, which have been perforated by ants, and, when the wind blows, fill the air with a melody like that of an Æolian harp. There are also detailed accounts of hunting expeditions after the big game of the region, often, it should be noted, to obtain pictures of them, not to slay them. Mr. Schillings, in fact, never loses an opportunity to plead for the preservation of this animal life, now threatened in German East Africa with extinction through indiscriminate slaughter. He devotes an entire chapter to an account of its needless destruction in South Africa in the last century, and of the measures adopted for its preservation, especially in the United States, by the establishment of reservations and "sanctuaries." The advocacy of this "great and noble task," which he urges upon all European travellers in the "wide hunting grounds of foreign lands," is one of the two main objects which he had in view in publishing his book.

The other was to give to the world another collection of his photographs—nature documents, as they have been aptly termed. These include almost every living creature of that region, from flamingos, pelicans, and storks to elephants, lions, and giraffes. Among the most interesting pictures are those of a hyena visible in the foreground and only the gleaming eyes of two others hidden in the bush, and of two bull-elephants with snow-white shining tusks. There are also numerous representations of camp life, one of which is a really charming group of a baboon and a little naked African child. With a view to help other travellers to secure trustworthy photographs of the rare species of beasts and birds that are dying out, he describes his methods of work, especially at night, his difficulties and failures as well as his successes.

Naturally, in Mr. Schillings's book, being largely a record of impressions—from the opening chapter to the end the reader is under the spell of an ardent lover of nature—there is much that is dreamy and obscure. There is an occasional trace of humor, however, as, for instance, when he says that from the sudden onset of a rhinoceros "you experience the same kind of sensation as when you are knocked over by a motor-car." Mr. Whyte's part in the preparation of this volume is admirably done. So easy is his style and so free from the traces of a foreign language that one hardly realizes that the writing is a translation. It is scarcely necessary to add that the make-up of the book is most attractive.

Corolla Numismatica: Numismatic Essays in honor of Barclay V. Head. With a portrait and eighteen plates. New York: Henry Frowde. $12.

The object of this volume, issued on the occasion of B. V. Head's retirement (June 30, 1906), from the Keepership of Coins in the British Museum, was to make some unofficial recognition of the services rendered by that great scholar to the study of numismatics. For this purpose a number of distinguished numismatists have contributed articles dealing especially with those questions on which Mr. Head's own researches have thrown light. The result is a collection of essays which, besides fulfilling their immediate purpose of honoring Mr. Head, testify to the singular importance of the study of numismatics in the field of archæology. For it is not only on problems of ancient history and commerce that a close study of coins can throw light; almost every department of archæology is more or less indebted to numismatic researches. Thus P. Gardner, in his article "Copies of Statues on Coins," emphasizes the fact that many existing statues have been identified as copies of noted works of sculpture on numismatic evidence; at the same time he points out that the testimony of such coins can only form a safe guide when we recognize fully the various conventions which the die-sinker accepts. Adrien Blanchet, by the help of some bronze coins of Massalia, shows us the type of the tutelary deity Minerva worshipped in a temple on the acropolis of that city. Heinrich Dressel, in his essay "Der Matidiatempel auf einem Medaillon des Hadrianus," proves that even topographical questions can be settled by the help of coins, and shows that the temple of Matidia, the exact location of which has long been a point of dispute, was indeed between the basilicas of Matidia and Marciana on a site about half-way between the Pantheon and the basilica of Neptune.

It would carry us too far to record, however briefly, the points raised in each of the thirty articles—in English, German, French, Italian, and Greek—which make up this volume. We shall only mention a few, so as to give an idea of the variety of subjects discussed and the importance of some of the conclusions or theories set forth. In an interesting essay on Minoan Weights and Mediums of Currency from Crete, Mycenæ, and Cyprus, Arthur J. Evans shows that the metric systems in use in Egypt exercised a predominant influence in the Minoan world, and thus adds one more to the many points of intimate contact between these two civilizations. He furthermore makes an important suggestion, namely, that the "dumps," or drops of precious metal, of which three were found at Cyprus and one at Cnosus, and which date back at least to the twelfth century B. C., formed the immediate antecedent stage to coined money. Between these "dumps" and the earliest known coins there would be a gap of about four centuries, which we must hope that perhaps future discoveries will bridge over. E. Babelon publishes an Athenian obol, unique in that it bears the name of Hippias, tyrant of Athens. No tyrant's name had as yet been found on Athenian coinage. A monograph, "The Chronological Sequence of the Coins of Corinth, B. C. 450-390," by C. Oman, and an essay, "The Study of Byzantine Numismatics," by Warwick Wroth, give valuable facts about these two important, though somewhat neglected, series of coins. The coinage of Pergamon, of Persia, of Luceria, and of some Græco-Indian sovereigns is treated in other articles, and several rare and hitherto unknown coins are here published for the first time.

The book is, of course, principally for

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numismatists. The highly technical nature of most of the essays places them outside the interest of the general public. But even the casual reader will be impressed by the patient research and scientific handling evinced in the treatment of each subject. We could not have better proof than this collection of essays of the scientific methods of modern archæology.

Science.

BOOKS BY AND ABOUT LINNÆUS.

The various publications of the two institutions with which Linnæus was most closely connected, the Academy of Sciences in Stockholm and the University of Upsala, on the occasion of the celebration this spring, are veritable testimonials to the manysidedness of the man. This manysidedness is most forcibly brought out in the printed writings of Linnæus, as well as in the *Festskrift* issued by the Academy in Stockholm: "Carl von Linnés betydelse såson naturforskare och läkare." Linnæus's activities as a physician and a medical writer are the subjects of a monograph by Otto E. A. Hjelt, professor emeritus in Helsingfors, who in 1877 published a study with similar title. The remainder of this volume shows us Linnæus as a zoölogist, botanist, geologist, and mineralogist, in studies written by the representatives of these subjects on the staff of the Academy. To Dr. Hjelt's work is appended a reissue of Linnæus's "Clavis medicinæ," while one of his lecture notebooks, "Lachesis naturalis quæ tradit dictum diætam naturalem," is now published for the first time (from a manuscript belonging to the Linnæan Society in London) under the auspices of the Faculty of Medicine in Upsala. With this is issued, after manuscript notes from some of his students, his "Collegium diæteticum eller Academiska föreläsningar öfver dieten." A comparison between these two gives a clear idea of the relation between the notebook and the lectures as delivered from the platform, of the conciseness and clearness of his notes, and of the fluent and lively delivery, full of digressions into all sides of human life.

Linnæus early became interested in ornithology, and among his manuscripts was found a small manuscript volume entitled "Methodus avium Sveticarum," dated January 1, 1731. Originally consisting of thirty-seven leaves, it has been swelled by numerous interpolations; Linnæus seems to have carried it with him on his travels and used it as a sort of ornithological notebook. It has now been published as the special contribution of the Faculty of Philosophy. The Faculty of Law published his "Pluto Svecicus," from a manuscript in Upsala University Library; also his lectures on geology, "Beskrifnig öfver stenriket," from notes made by his students. The contribution of the Theological Faculty is a monograph, by the Rev. S. J. Enander, on "Salices i Linnés herbarium." The invitation of the Rector Magnificus Schück to the festivities of the university is accompanied by Linnæus's "Vorlesungen über die Cultur der Pflantzen," after a manuscript by one of his students, found in the Botanical Museum of the Imperial Academy of St. Petersburg. The editor of this volume, Dr. M. B. Svederus, who was also charged with the laborious task of preparing the "Lachesis" for print, is author of a study of Linnæus as a horticulturist, published in the University's Arskrift. A facsimile of the first edition of "Systema Naturæ" has been issued by the Stockholm Academy.

Besides these various single-volume publications, the university has published the first instalment of Linnæus's voluminous correspondence, under the editorship of Prof. Th. M. Fries; and the Academy of Science has begun the publication of a complete edition of his more formal writings, of which three volumes are already issued, namely, "Flora Lapponica," "Classes Plantarum," and a collection of shorter dissertations and papers on general scientific subjects, most of them originally written in Latin, but now translated into Swedish by Professor Fries. Attention might also be called to Professor Fries's two-volume biography of Linnæus (1903), which is now being published in a new edition.

Of great interest is Prof. Tycho Tullberg's "Linnéporträtt," a quarto of 187 pages, with 37 illustrations in the text, and 21 plates. It is a descriptive iconography of the known portraits of Linnæus, 515 in all, paintings and sculptures, originals and reproductions, authentic and fanciful. In the historical introduction, which occupies much the larger part of the volume, the author presents a survey of the likenesses made during Linnæus's life, with the view of establishing an authoritative opinion as to Linnæus's appearance at various periods of his life; later portraits and reproductions of originals are also described.

"Bibliographia Linnæana. Matériaux pour servir à une bibliographie Linnéenne, recueillis par J. M. Hulth," is the title of the publication which the Kungl. Vetenskars Societeten in Upsala contributes to the celebration. The author of the work is the society's librarian. The first part of the first volume, the only one to appear at the time of the festivities at Upsala, contains a chronological list of Linnæus's printed works, giving under the date of the first edition of each the full entries of all subsequent editions, including translations, extracts, etc., which afterwards are merely mentioned under their own years of publication. This method has the great advantage over a strict chronological arrangement under imprint dates, that one can read at a glance the bibliographical history of each work. Dr. Hulth's notes are of particular interest in this respect. References to book reviews are given under each edition or issue. The very first entry is an interesting item in the biography of Linnæus. It is a dissertation presented to the University of Upsala for the degree of doctor of philosophy by another man, J. O. Rudbeck. An original manuscript of it in Linnæus's hand is preserved in the university library; it has the following inscription, also by Linnæus: "J'ai composé cette dissertation en un jour, au prix convenue de '20 daler kopparmynt.' Un autre en a l'honneur." The bibliography, which will contain a full record of all Linnæus's writings, whether printed or not, and a list of all biographies of him, and books and articles about him and his work, will occupy three volumes; it will be completed during the year 1908. Dr. Hulth is also responsible for the reissue in a limited edition (150 copies) of the first—and only—number of "Linnéska Institutets Skrifter," published in Upsala 100 years ago.

A. G. S. J.

In science the Oxford University Press announces the following: "Index Kewensis," Supplement III., bringing the names down to 1905; "Floral Mechanisms," by A. H. Church; "Studies in the Anatomy of Ancient India. Part I., Ætiology of the Bones of the Human Body," by A. F. Rudolf Hoernle; and "Lectures on Evolution," by E. B. Poulton.

"The Sense of Touch in Mammals and Birds," by Dr. Walter Kidd (The Macmillan Co.), is based upon a paper presented before the Zoölogical Society of London. It is divided into macroscopical treatment, or detailed description of the papillary ridges of hands and feet; and microscopical, illustrated with microphotographs of sections of the skin. Eighty-six types of mammals and eleven birds, representing all the principal orders, are described. Among these, seven distinct forms of epidermic modification are distinguished: smooth and corrugated epidermis, scales, nodules, hair, rods, and papillary ridges, the latter group reaching its full development in the primates. One of the most important results of the investigation is the demonstration that remarkable and complex patterns are formed of the papillary ridges, the complexity increasing with the higher organization of the animals in question. Sensory spots of four kinds are differentiated—spots of touch, cold, warmth, and pain, the difference depending on the distribution of the five or six kinds of end-organs of the skin. The papillary ridges are preëminently organs of touch; and an important function of the tactile sense is that by which it supplies to the cerebellum knowledge of the position of the body in space. This reflex equilibration or orientation is especially pronounced in nocturnal arboreal animals, such as lemurs, and it is also highly developed in perching birds. In the hand of man we have discriminative sensibility as the principal tactile use, while the foot exercises maintenance of equilibrium.

Drama.

Bernard Shaw. By Holbrook Jackson. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co.

This little book will afford great satisfaction to the admirers of Bernard Shaw; for the author is an enthusiastic disciple of that brilliant but erratic propagandist. The book is also likely to prove interesting to connoisseurs in human intellectual vagaries, not only because it is cleverly written, in a way that often reflects what the faithful call the Shavian attitude and manner, but because it gives an apparently authoritative summary of Mr. Shaw's various theories, social, political, and the like, and furnishes some significant facts which may help to account for a good many of them. All that need be stated here is that owing to circumstances for which he was not responsible, he had practically no

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educational guidance during the most important formative period of his youth, which was passed amid influences much more favorable to hasty and revolutionary theorizing than to the habit of solid thought. How quick his agile, impulsive, unregulated, and disputatious brain has ever been to adopt any idea that savored of revolt against established order, in art, science, politics, or theology, and how unreasonable he could be in the pursuit of these ideas have been demonstrated amply in his career as a socialistic agitator, a critic of music, of painting and the drama, as a playwright, and as a contributor to the daily press.

Mr. Jackson discusses him in the fourfold aspect of man, Fabian, playwright, and philosopher, and proves to his own satisfaction that Mr. Shaw is the incarnation of all that is best in modern thought. Against an opinion of this sort it is scarcely worth while to argue, but it may be noted that Mr. Jackson is careful to explain that the object of his reverence is not the whimsical, paradoxical, exasperating, brilliant, but often exceedingly shallow, *poseur*, so often in the public ear and eye, but the potential Shaw, the profound moralist and zealous missioner who has created "an intellectual conception of himself that holds a greater place in the contemporary mind than the reality." The motive of his disguise, apparently, was to attract attention to his true philosophy, which otherwise might have been doomed to obscurity. Mr. Shaw's main dogma, it seems, is the right, nay duty, of every man to do what he wants to do, and thus free himself from the thrall of the spontaneous, universal, energetic, but altogether unintelligent "life-force," of which he is at once the product and victim. Having once broken loose from this paralyzing influence, and such crippling entanglements as order, tradition, duty, conventional morality, and so forth, man will be able to enter into his proper sphere of superman. His problem, in homely phrase, is to raise himself by his bootstraps. On the whole, the real Shaw seems to be rather more incomprehensible than the fictitious, and infinitely less amusing. But Mr. Jackson has written a very entertaining book.

Sarah Bernhardt will begin another London season on October 21 appearing in Sardou's "La Sorcière." Later she will be seen in Hervieu's "Le Réveil."

Music.

Ernest Walker's "History of English Music" is announced by the Oxford University Press for this autumn.

The season of the New York Symphony Society will begin on November 2 at Carnegie Hall. The two events of general interest will be the first production in America of Tchaikovsky's opera, "Eugen Onegin," which will be given in concert form with soloists and chorus, and a Beethoven Cycle. This performance will be the first in this country of any Tchaikovsky opera; and inasmuch as the great Russian had much more musical than dramatic genius, the work will probably not lose very much by being transplanted to the concert stage. The Beethoven Cycle will occur during the last six Sunday afternoon concerts, and will include all the symphonies and other important vocal and instrumental works of this master, in chronological order. Three symphonies new to New York are also announced. Mahler's Symphony No. 7 will be conducted by the composer, if the society's plans do not miscarry. Walter Damrosch, the conductor of the Symphony Society, will give D'Indy's symphony, "A Summer Day on the Mountain," its first performance in America. The other score new to this city is Chadwick's Symphony No. 3. Among the better known works announced are: "Symphonie Fantastique," Berlioz; Symphony No. 3, Brahms; Symphony "From the New World," Dvorák; Symphony in D-minor, Franck; Petite Symphonie for Wind Instruments, Gounod; "Faust Symphony," Liszt; "Ocean Symphony," Rubinstein; Symphony No. 4, Schumann; Irish Symphony, Stanford; "Sinfonia Domestica," Strauss; Symphony No. 4 and "Hamlet," Tchaikovsky. A number of notable soloists will give their assistance to the orchestra. Mme. Eames makes her only appearance in concert on November 23. Mme. Schumann-Heink, soloist last winter also, will sing again. Mme. Teresa Carreno will make her reappearance in this city after a long absence. First reappearances in New York are announced by the society likewise for Fritz Kreisler, Mme. Bloomfield-Zeisler, and Harold Bauer. Josef Hoffman will be the soloist in a Liszt programme, and Emillo De Gogorza will sing in "Eugen Onegin."

The regular chamber-music concerts of the Kneisel Quartet will be given in Mendelssohn Hall on the following Tuesday evenings: December 3, January 7, February 10, March 10, April 7 and 14. The constitution of the Quartet this year will be Franz Kneisel, first violin; Julius Roentgen, second violin; Louis Svecenski, viola; and Willem Willeke, 'cello. Assisting soloists will be Mme. Olga Samaroff, Miss Katherine Goodson, Harold Bauer, Rudolph Ganz, Sigismund Stojowski, Arthur Whiting, and others. The works to be produced include Beethoven, Quartet in F major, op. 18; Quartet in F major, op. 59; Quartet in C sharp minor, op. 131; Trio in B flat major, op. 97; Hadyn, Quartet in G minor; Mozart, Quartet in D minor; Schumann, Quartet in A minor, op. 41; Quartet in E flat major; Mendelssohn, Quartet in D major, op. 44, No. 1; Brahms, Quintet in G major; Quartet in A major; Trio in C minor; Dvorák, Quintet in E flat major; Strauss, Sonata in F major for violoncello and piano; César Franck, Quartet in D major; Charles M. Loeffler, Quintet for three violins, viola and violoncello; Smetana, Quartet in E minor ("Aus meinem Leben"); Léon Boellmann, Quartet in F minor, op. 10, for piano, violin, viola, and violoncello.

Arrangements have been completed by R. E. Johnson by which Gerardy, the 'cellist, and Safonoff, conductor of the Philharmonic Society, will collaborate in six recitals in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Washington, Baltimore, and Chicago. The first will be at Carnegie Hall in December.

The Adele Margulies trio—Miss Adele Margulies, pianist; Leopold Lichtenberg, violinist; Leo Schulz, 'cellist—announce three chamber-music concerts, to be given at Mendelssohn Hall, on the following Tuesday evenings: November 19, January 14, and February 11, 1908.

November will see the first production in New York of "Tom Jones," by a well-known English composer, Edward German. It will be sung by Henry W. Savage's company, and Robert Courtneidge is coming over from England to stage it.

Art.

Le Origini della Pittura Veneziana, 1300–1500. By Lionello Venturi. Venice: Instituto Veneto di Arti Grafiche. Pp. 427; 120 plates. 30 lire.

In this ambitious but sober work a young scholar shows himself his father's son. But it recalls less the Adolfo Venturi of to-day, somewhat befogged in encyclopædics, than him of twenty years ago at the time of those admirable researches in the Ferrarese school. A similar cautious and methodical quality is displayed in this useful treatise. It has received a prize from the Royal Venetian Institution of Sciences, Letters, and Arts, and it deserved the distinction, for it is a model of a well-conducted investigation. It is timely also, for our knowledge of the early Venetian school has been notably increased within recent years. Berenson has ascertained the importance of Alvise Vivarini as a *caposcuola*, Lüdwig and Molmenti have explained the artistic origins of Carpaccio, Cailler has substituted the facts for the Vasarian legend of Antonello da Messina. Meanwhile scores of paintings of consequence have been discovered. It was the hour for a comprehensive summary of these results, and Signor Venturi's book is a criticism as well.

For reference it is very conveniently arranged. Each school has its chapter. The article upon each artist begins with a table of all the documentary evidence in his case; the footnotes cover the literature of the subject quite exhaustively. In general purely æsthetic issues are ignored, but when the author's sympathy is fully aroused, as in the case of Cima, the connoisseurship readily passes over into genuine appreciation. Although in the main a compilation, the book deals independently with attributions, rejecting, for example, and we believe rightly, the three Gentile Bellinis of the National Gallery, and subjecting the work of the greater Giovanni to a more drastic sifting than it has yet received.

On main issues the author confirms most of his recent predecessors. He agrees with Berenson as to the importance of Alvise Vivarini, accepts Kristeller's theory that Jacopo Bellini and not Squarcione was the real master of Mantegna, and admits with Ludwig and Molmenti that the feeble Lazzaro Bastiani was the teacher of Carpaccio. We prefer to believe that here is merely a case of parallel development. Everywhere Signor Venturi has preferred being right to being original, a virtue not so

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often illustrated by débutants in the art-critical profession. Naturally so exhaustive a work will provoke dissent at many points. Here is not the place to register exceptions at large, and we will only say that the attempt to derive Carlo Crivelli from Antonio da Negroponte seems to us far fetched. Antonio was a reactionary and barely touched by the Paduan reform, whereas Crivelli, even in his earliest works, is steeped in the Squarcionesque teaching. The development of Crivelli is in so many respects analogous to that of Bartolommeo Vivarini that there is no need to suppose an intermediary influence.

An inevitable defect in the book is the incompleteness of the lists. In part this is due to simple bad luck—for example, the miniature by Gentile Bellini discovered at Constantinople last year, and the Mantegnesque Madonna by Giovanni Bellini, in the Johnson collection, Philadelphia, were published in the *Burlington Magazine* last year just too late for use. In part it may be due to a prudent reluctance to list pictures on hearsay. But the Dead Christ by Antonio Veneziano, in the Jarves collection, New Haven, has been published; the fine Pietà by Giambono in the Metropolitan Museum has been described in its Bulletin; a Magdalen by Bartolommeo Vivarini, in the Shaw collection, Boston, has been signalized by Berenson. An Ancona, signed, of the school has for years been exhibited in the Boston Art Museum. The same gallery has a fine Pietà by Carlo Crivelli, works by the same artist or his school are in the Metropolitan Museum, the Wilstach collection, Philadelphia; and the Walters collection, Baltimore. Mr. Johnson's fine Carpaccio, at Philadelphia, has surely been described by F. Mason Perkins in the *Rassegna d'Arte*. These omissions, a few among many more, emphasize the great need of an authoritative work on old masters in America. The sumptuous volumes edited by Messrs. La Farge and Jaccaci can meet that need only in part. We want something that includes public as well as private galleries, and at a price possible for students. It has been hinted that such a compilation is in progress and in the most competent hands. If so, 'twere well 'twere done quickly.

We can take no serious exception either to the taste or scholarship of this excellent book, but we regret a little the failure to go more thoroughly into the school of Giovanni Bellini. To be sure, this would have swelled the volume, while these painters fall beyond the term Signor Venturi has set for himself. Yet artistically they belong after all to the Quattrocento, and, presumably, no one was in a better position to handle them than our author. Moreover, the problem of some of these school pieces is that of the master himself, since they bear his signature and represent his invention. The case of the charming nude, A Lady at her Toilette—versions at Bienna, in the Widener collection, Philadelphia, and elsewhere—is crucial. We may suppose that the actual painting is by Bissolo, but whose is the invention? It is signed as Bellini's and dated in 1515, the last year of his life. Are we to believe it a casual inspiration of Bissolo's that the master fathered merely as a studio product? Or are we to regard it as an ultimate tribute to the manes of the greater disciple Giorgione? The question is interesting enough to deserve an answer from so careful a critic as our author.

This scholarly history, which includes not merely the extant works, but full accounts of destroyed or scattered decorative series in the Ducal Palace and the schools, may be cordially recommended to all students. For them it is specifically intended, but it will also be available for all whose concern with Venetian art has passed the elementary stage.

The sixth and concluding part of Sidney Colvin's "Oxford Drawings" will be issued by Henry Frowde this autumn.

Among the recent purchases of the Metropolitan Museum of Art are a small Last Supper, by Tintoretto, and an altar piece by Cima, representing in stately attitudes St. Anthony, St. Roch, and St. Lucy. The altar piece is from the collection of the Duke of Leuchtenberg of St. Petersburg, while the Last Supper was formerly in the possession of Lord Methuen. The most important loan made to the museum for several months is that of the Barberini tapestries lent by the Cathedral of St. John the Divine. Twelve pieces constitute the set, which bears the general title The Mysteries of the Life and Death of Christ. The set was woven at the pontifical tapestry works at Rome, under the auspices of Cardinal Barberini, for the chapel of Urban VIII. about 1642. The cartoons are still preserved in the palace of the Barberini in Rome. The style is of the late Renaissance and somewhat florid. Much space is devoted in the *Museum Bulletin* of this month to the work of excavating the pyramid temple of Amenemhat I., at Lisht, in Egypt. Nearly one hundred tombs have been opened, but few interesting things were found, until the grave of a woman named Senbtes was opened. This contained a considerable amount of gold jewelry, some specimens of fine textiles, and small pieces of pottery.

The death is announced of Friedrich K. W. Schneider, canon of the Cathedral of Mainz, in his seventy-second year. Dr. Schneider wrote much on art and antiquities, and it was through his efforts that the Roman remains at Saalburg were preserved. Among his works are "Baugeschichte des Mainzer Domes," "Mittelalterliche Ordensbauten in Mainz," and "Schatzverzeichnisse Mainzer Klöster."

Finance.

THE TIGHTENING MONEY MARKET.

The month of September, greatly as it had been feared on the money market, passed with an unruffled calm which caused as much surprise in Wall Street as did the unseasonable disturbances of August. Though rates for demand loans on the New York Stock Exchange had touched 40 per cent. in September, 1906, 25 per cent. in 1902, 10 per cent. in 1901, and 20 per cent. in 1899, the highest rate last month was 6 per cent., and even this reflected a few exceptional operations such as the New York city loan, rather than the general condition of the market. Reserves of the New York Associated Banks, indeed, which last year fell from $2,800,000 at the end of August to a deficit of $6,500,000 on September 8, and which rose to a surplus of only $3,500,000 in the ensuing week, were well maintained this September. The month began with a surplus of $8,700,000, which fell to $6,900,000 in the middle of September, and returned to $8,400,000 the third week. As a result of this maintenance of reserves, not only did call money grow actually easy—the rate went to 1 per cent. for a day in the last week of the month—but loans on time, which were quoted at 6½ per cent. in the later weeks of August, had declined to 5½ before September was over.

Those who look below the surface inferred that the unusual strain of August was in a sense the explanation of the unusual ease of September. In the ordinary course of events, forced sales on the Stock Exchange, with the consequent crash in prices, would have followed an actual stringency of September; but this year circumstances brought on this liquidation a month earlier, thus anticipating, and, in the Wall Street phrase, "discounting in advance," the effects of the usual autumn stringency.

But this is only part of the explanation. Shipments of currency from New York to the harvest States, the usual cause of autumn stringency, were smaller during September than during any corresponding month for nearly a decade. On exchange of currency with outside domestic points, the New York banks lost $15,000,000 in September, 1904, $7,000,000 in 1905, and $12,000,000 in 1906; but their net loss last month was less than $4,000,000, and even of this, practically all occurred in the closing week. People who had watched the crops this year were not at loss to understand the change. The abnormal delay in arrival of summer weather at planting time, made the great crops fully three weeks late.

This explanation was borne out by the magnitude of later currency shipments. In the closing week of September upwards of three million dollars were sent; last week the outflow was equally large. As a result, the surplus reserves of the New York Associated Banks fell by last Saturday to the smallest figure for that date in all but two of the past fifteen years. Those two years, 1902 and 1899, saw a serious deficit later. Last Saturday's surplus over the 25 per cent. requirement against deposits, was only $2,628,000, whereas a year before the figure was $9,423,000, and in 1905 was $4,286,000. In other words, on the face of things the position of the banks is weaker than in either of the past two years. Responding to this low reserve, rates for demand loans on the Stock Exchange rose a week ago to 10 per cent.—a higher rate than in the opening week of October in any year since 1902. It was evident, last Saturday, that unless loans and liabilities of the banks should be much reduced, continuance of this outward flow of currency threatened another deficit in reserves.

There are several events which might alter the situation. In ordinary years, when reserves have been drawn down by excessive Stock Exchange speculation, the calling of loans in Wall Street, with the resultant forced sale of stocks and fall in prices, has been the quickest avenue of relief. But the general opinion to-day is, that the stock market is no longer primarily responsible for the burden on the

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banks. One and two years ago, a similar difficulty was evaded by heavy borrowings from inland banks. These institutions, attracted by the high rate offered for temporary loans in Wall Street, sent their balances for use here. Such help from interior banks is hardly to be expected now, because these banks are themselves carrying heavy burdens, incurred through local activity in trade and speculation. Recent returns from the country's 6,544 national banks showed that loans for the whole United States had increased $379,000,000 over a year ago, and that, of this increase, $369,000,000 had occurred outside of New York city—clear evidence as to how these outside lenders stand.

Last year, relief to the New York banks came through extensive loans by Europe. Attracted, as were our own interior banks, by the high rate for money in Wall Street, London institutions advanced to New York borrowers such sums that not only were New York's own bank loans much reduced, but cash reserves were increased by import of $40,000,000 gold. Exact repetition of this expedient is probably impossible, for the London banks have changed their attitude toward New York, and are as timid now as they were overconfident a year ago. Nevertheless, two interesting facts, which arise in this connection, are that London, at least, is better able to grant assistance of the sort than at this time in several years, and that our power to draw legitimately on Europe's capital may perhaps be very great. The Bank of England, whose comparatively weak position a year ago was one cause for the 6 per cent. discount rate established later, reported last week a gold reserve greater by $27,000,000 than in the same week of 1906, and a ratio of reserve to liability larger than any touched at the opening of October since 1896. While this is the condition as concerns the power to lend, exports of wheat from the United States are rising to figures unparalleled in recent years. That Europe must buy all the wheat the United States will have to spare, and must buy it at prices higher than last year's—the export price is 35 per cent. above the same date in 1906—is now an admitted fact.

Finally, there remains the attitude of the United States Treasury. Secretary Cortelyou up to the present date has acted with great sagacity. Unlike his predecessors, he has refused to listen to the demands of Wall Street, based on a day of stringency in the Stock Exchange, and has released the surplus funds in the government's hands only as fast as the real commercial needs of a given community gave, in his judgment, legitimate ground for deposits in their banks. The result of his prudent policy is that while public deposits with the banks increased only $12,000,000 in September—of which increase less than $4,000,000 came to New York—he has in hand to-day the greater part of the fund available for relief a month ago. He should be able, therefore, to intervene effectively in case of a real emergency.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aflalo, F. G. Sunshine and Sport in Florida and the West Indies. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $4 net.
American Bible Society, Annual Report of.
Annual Report of Experiment Stations, 1906. Washington.
Baker, Etta Anthony. The Youngsters of Centerville. Holt.
Baring, Maurice. A Year in Russia. Dutton $3.50 net.
Benham, W. Gurney. A Book of Quotations. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Benson, Arthur Christopher. Alfred Tennyson. Dutton. $1.50 net.
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